

T H E
LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL
M A G A Z I N E,
A N D
B R I T I S H R E V I E W,
For M A Y, 1793.

MEMOIRS OF WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE.

WITH AN ELEGANT HEAD.

THIS celebrated man was the son of John Shakespeare, a considerable dealer in wool, and born at Stratford upon Avon, in Warwickshire, in April, 1564. His father's numerous family, (having ten children) disabled him from giving him a classical education. He was, however, sent for some time to a free-school, where he acquired the little Latin he was master of. On his leaving school, he followed the way of living his father pointed out to him, which, Mr. Malone seems to think, was in an attorney's office, and married, when very young, the daughter of a substantial yeoman, in the vicinity of Stratford, named Hathaway. An extravagance that he was guilty of, obliged him in a few years to quit his native place.— Having associated with some lewd young fellows, who made a practice of stealing deer, he joined them in robbing a park belonging to Sir Thomas Lucy, of Charlecote, near

Stratford. Sir Thomas prosecuted him with some severity, and our author took his revenge, by writing a severe satirical ballad upon him.— Shakespeare fled to London, and there made his first acquaintance with the theatre, where he is said to have been retained in the humble occupation of a *call-boy*, or prompter's attendant. His natural turn for the stage, however, soon distinguished him as a writer, although not as an actor. His name appears printed before some old plays among the other actors, but the parts he played are not specified; it is said, his highest performance was the Ghost, in his own admirable play of Hamlet. Which piece he wrote first, is unknown. The people of his age were wonderfully fond of the diversions of the theatre, and Shakespeare's eminent talents in this line raised him to a just celebrity. He was also a good-natured man, and an agreeable companion.

Queen Elizabeth patronized his plays, and had several of them acted before her; it is she he plainly intends by the line—*A fair vessel, throned in the west*. With his admirable character of Falstaff she was so well pleased, that she commanded him to continue it through another play, and to shew him in love; which is said to have been the occasion of his writing the *Merry Wives of Windsor*. The part of Falstaff is reported to have been written under the name of Oldcastle, but changed, to avoid offending that family. Besides the favours he received from the queen, the Earl of Southampton, celebrated for his friendship for the unfortunate Essex, also patronized him. That nobleman is said to have presented him with a thousand pounds at one time, to enable him to go through with a purchase he was desirous of completing. His acquaintance with Ben Jonson began by a remarkable piece of good-nature. Jonson had presented a play for the stage, which the players were going to return, when Shakespeare luckily cast his eyes upon it, and recommended it to the public.

Shakespeare spent the latter part of his life in ease, retirement, and the conversation of his friends. He had the good fortune to secure an estate equal to his wish, and it is said died worth between two and three hundred pounds per annum; which, considering the relative value of money, was in those days a very considerable income. He spent some years before his death at his native town of Stratford. In 1614, the greater part of the town was consumed by fire, but the house of our favourite bard escaped, and was distinguished by the name of *New Place*. In this retreat, his agreeable wit and great good nature procured him the acquaintance and friendship of the gentlemen of the neighbourhood. Among these was a gentleman of the name of Combe, noted for his wealth and usury; on whom, and at whose desire, he wrote the

severe and well-known epitaph: the severity of the satire is said to have had such an effect on the man, that he never forgave it.

He died in his fifty-third year, and was buried in the north side of the chancel in the great church at Stratford, where a monument is placed on the wall. On his grave-stone is the following inscription:

Good friend, for Jesu's sake forbear
To dig the dust inclosed here;
Blest be the man that spares these stones,
And curst be he that moves my bones.

He had three daughters, of which two lived to be married; one to Mr. Thomas Quiney, and the other to Dr. Hall, a physician of reputation.

The following circumstance Mr. Pope relates, as communicated by Mr. Rowe. In the time of Elizabeth, coaches being yet uncommon, and hired coaches not at all in use, those who were too proud, too tender, or too idle, to walk, went on horseback to distant places of business or diversion. Many came on horseback to the play, and when Shakespeare fled to London, his first expedient was to wait at the door of the play-house, and hold the horses of those who had no servants. In this he became so diligent, that every one who alighted called for Will. Shakespeare; and scarcely any other was trusted, while Shakespeare could be had. This was the first dawn of better fortune. Shakespeare finding more horses put into his hands than he could hold, hired boys to wait under him, who, when he was called for, immediately presented themselves, and said, "I am Shakespeare's boy, Sir." In time Shakespeare found higher employment, but as long as the practice of riding to the play-house continued, the waiters, that held the horses, were called *Shakespeare's boys*.

A variety of other anecdotes might be given of our author; but as many of them are by no means well authenticated, we shall omit them, and proceed to give what is much more essential, a character of his

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his works, as drawn by one of his editors (Dr. Johnson), whose judgment and power of expression enabled him to do it with the greatest justice.

"Shakespeare is, above all writers, at least above all modern writers, the poet of nature; the poet that holds up to his readers a faithful mirror of manners and of life. His characters are not modified by the customs of particular places, unpractised by the rest of the world; by the peculiarities of studies or professions, which can operate but upon small numbers; or by the accidents of transient fashions or temporary opinions: they are the genuine progeny of common humanity, such as the world will always supply, and observation will always find. His persons act and speak by the influence of those general passions and principles by which all minds are agitated, and the whole system of life is continued in motion. In the writings of other poets a character is too often an individual; in those of Shakespeare it is commonly a species.

"It is from this wide extension of design that so much instruction is derived. It is this which fills the plays of Shakespeare with practical axioms and domestic wisdom. It was said of Euripides, that every verse was a precept; and it may be said of Shakespeare, that from his works may be collected a system of civil and economical prudence. Yet his real power is not shewn in the splendor of particular passages, but by the progress of his fable, and the tenor of his dialogue; and he that tries to recommend him by select quotations, will succeed like the pedant in Hierocles, who, when he offered his house to sale, carried a brick in his pocket as a specimen.

"It will not easily be imagined how much Shakespeare excels in accommodating his sentiments to real life, but by comparing him with other authors. It was observed of the ancient schools of declamation, that

the more diligently they were frequented, the more was the student disqualified for the world, because he found nothing there which he should ever meet in any other place. The same remark may be applied to every stage but that of Shakespeare. The theatre, when it is under any other direction, is peopled by such characters as were never seen, conversing in a language which was never heard, upon topics which will never arise in the commerce of mankind. But the dialogue of this author is often so evidently determined by the incident which produces it, and is pursued with so much ease and simplicity, that it seems scarcely to claim the merit of fiction, but to have been gleaned by diligent selection out of common conversation, and common occurrences.

"Upon every other stage the universal agent is love, by whose power all good and evil is distributed, and every action quickened or retarded. To bring a lover, a lady, and a rival into the fable; to entangle them in contradictory obligations, perplex them with oppositions of interest, and harass them with violence of desires inconsistent with each other; to make them meet in rapture, and part in agony; to fill their mouths with hyperbolical joy and outrageous sorrow; to distress them as nothing human ever was distressed; to deliver them as nothing human ever was delivered; is the business of a modern dramatist. For this, probability is violated, life is misrepresented, and language is depraved. But love is only one of many passions; and as it has no great influence upon the sum of life, it has little operation in the dramas of a poet, who caught his ideas from the living world, and exhibited only what he saw before him. He knew that any other passion, as it was regular or exorbitant, was a cause of happiness or calamity.

"Characters thus ample and general were not easily discriminated and preserved, yet perhaps no poet

ever kept his personages more distinct from each other. I will not say with Pope, that every speech may be assigned to the proper speaker, because many speeches there are which have nothing characteristic; but, perhaps, though some may be equally adapted to every person, it will be difficult to find that any can be properly transferred from the present possessor to another claimant. The choice is right, when there is reason for choice.

"Other dramatists can only gain attention by hyperbolic or aggravated characters, by fabulous and unexampled excellence or depravity, as the writers of barbarous romances invigorated the reader by a giant and a dwarf; and he that should form his expectations of human affairs from the play, or from the tale, would be equally deceived. Shakspeare has no heroes; his scenes are occupied only by men, who act and speak as the reader thinks that he should himself have spoken or acted on the same occasion: even where the agency is supernatural, the dialogue is level with life. Other writers disguise the most natural passions and most frequent incidents; so that he who contemplates them in the book will not know them in the world: Shakspeare approximates the remote, and familiarizes the wonderful: the event which he represents will not happen, but, if it were possible, its effects would probably be such as he has assigned; and it may be said, that he has not only shewn human nature as it acts in real exigences, but as it would be found in trials, to which it cannot be exposed.

"This therefore is the praise of Shakspeare, that his drama is the mirror of life; that he who has mazed his imagination, in following the phantoms which other writers raise up before him, may here be cured of his delirious ecstasies, by reading human sentiments in human language, by scenes from which a hermit may estimate the transactions

of the world, and a confessor predict the progress of the passions.

"His adherence to general nature has exposed him to the censure of critics, who form their judgments upon narrower principles. Dennis and Rymer think his Romans not sufficiently Roman; and Voltaire censures his kings as not completely royal. Dennis is offended, that Menenius, a senator of Rome, should play the buffoon; and Voltaire perhaps thinks decency violated when the Danish usurper is represented as a drunkard. But Shakspeare always makes nature predominate over accident; and, if he preserves the essential character, is not very careful of distinctions superinduced and adventitious. His story requires Romans or kings, but he thinks only on men. He knew that Rome, like every other city, had men of all dispositions; and wanting a buffoon, he went into the senate-house for that which the senate-house would certainly have afforded him. He was inclined to shew an usurper and a murderer not only odious, but despicable; he therefore added drunkenness to his other qualities, knowing that kings love wine like other men, and that wine exerts its natural power upon kings. These are the petty cavils of petty minds; a poet overlooks the casual distinction of country and condition, as a painter, satisfied with the figure, neglects the drapery.

"The censure which he has incurred by mixing comic and tragic scenes, as it extends to all his works, deserves more consideration. Let the fact be first stated, and then examined.

"Shakspeare's plays are not in the rigorous and critical sense either tragedies or comedies, but compositions of a distinct kind; exhibiting the real state of sublunary nature, which partakes of good and evil, joy and sorrow, mingled with endless variety of proportion and innumerable modes of combination; and expressing the course of the world, in

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which the loss of one is the gain of another; in which, at the same time, the reveller is hasting to his wine, and the mourner burying his friend; in which the malignity of one is sometimes defeated by the frolic of another; and many mischiefs and many benefits are done and hindered without design.

"Out of this chaos of mingled purposes and casualties the ancient poets, according to the laws which custom had prescribed, selected some the crimes of men, and some their absurdities; some the momentous vicissitudes of life, and some the lighter occurrences; some the terrors of distress, and some the gaieties of prosperity. Thus rose the two modes of imitation, known by the names of *tragedy* and *comedy*, compositions intended to promote different ends by contrary means, and considered as so little allied, that I do not recollect among the Greeks or Romans a single writer who attempted both.

"Shakespeare has united the powers of exciting laughter and sorrow not only in one mind, but in one composition. Almost all his plays are divided between serious and ludicrous characters, and, in the successive evolutions of the design, sometimes produce seriousness and sorrow, and sometimes levity and laughter.

"That this is a practice contrary to the rules of criticism will be readily allowed; but there is always an appeal open from criticism to nature. The end of writing is to instruct; the end of poetry is to instruct by pleasing. That the mingled drama may convey all the instruction of tragedy or comedy cannot be denied, because it includes both in its alternations of exhibition, and approaches nearer than either to the appearance of life, by shewing how great machinations and slender designs may promote or obviate one another, and the high and the low co-operate in the general system by unavoidable concatenation.

"It is objected, that by this change of scenes the passions are interrupted in their progression, and that the principal event, being not advanced by a due gradation of preparatory incidents, wants at last the power to move, which constitutes the perfection of dramatic poetry. This reasoning is so specious, that it is received as true even by those who in daily experience feel it to be false. The interchanges of mingled scenes seldom fail to produce the intended vicissitudes of passion. Fiction cannot move so much, but that the attention may be easily transferred; and though it must be allowed that pleasing melancholy be sometimes interrupted by unwelcome levity, yet let it be considered likewise, that melancholy is often not pleasing, and that the disturbance of one man may be the relief of another; that different auditors have different habits; and that, upon the whole, all pleasure consists in variety.

"The players, who in their edition divided our author's works into comedies, histories, and tragedies, seem not to have distinguished the three kinds by any very exact or definite ideas.

"An action which ended happily to the principal persons, however serious or distressful through its intermediate incidents, in their opinion constituted a comedy. This idea of a comedy continued long amongst us; and plays were written, which, by changing the catastrophe, were tragedies to-day, and comedies to-morrow.

"Tragedy was not in those times a poem of more general dignity or elevation than comedy; it required only a calamitous conclusion, with which the common criticism of that age was satisfied, whatever lighter pleasure it afforded in its progress.

"History was a series of actions, with no other than chronological succession, independent on each other, and without any tendency to introduce or regulate the conclusion. It is not always very nicely distinguished

guished from tragedy. There is not much nearer approach to unity of action in the tragedy of Antony and Cleopatra, than in the history of Richard the Second. But a history might be continued through many plays; as it had no plan, it had no limits.

"Through all these denominations of the drama, Shakespeare's mode of composition is the same; an interchange of seriousness and merriment, by which the mind is softened at one time, and exhilarated at another. But whatever be his purpose, whether to gladden or depress, or to conduct the story, without vehemence or emotion, through tracts of easy and familiar dialogue, he never fails to attain his purpose; as he commands us, we laugh or mourn, or sit silent with quiet expectation, in tranquillity without indifference.

"When Shakespeare's plan is understood, most of the criticisms of Rymer and Voltaire vanish away. The play of Hamlet is opened, without impropriety, by two centinels; Iago bellows at Brabantio's window, without injury to the scheme of the play, though in terms which a modern audience would not easily endure; the character of Polonius is seasonable and useful; and the gravediggers themselves may be heard with applause.

"Shakespeare engaged in dramatic poetry with the world open before him; the rules of the ancients were yet known to few; the public judgment was unformed; he had no example of such fame as might force him upon imitation, nor critics of such authority as might restrain his extravagance: he therefore indulged his natural disposition; and his disposition, as Rymer has remarked, led him to comedy. In tragedy he often writes, with great appearance of toil and study, what is written at last with little felicity: but, in his comic scenes, he seems to produce, without labour, what no labour can improve. In tragedy he is always struggling after some occasion to be

comic; but in comedy he seems to repose, or to luxuriate, as in a mode of thinking congenial to his nature. In his tragic scenes there is always something wanting, but his comedy often surpasses expectation or desire. His comedy pleases by the thoughts and the language, and his tragedy for the greater part by incident and action. His tragedy seems to be skill, his comedy to be instinct.

"The force of his comic scenes has suffered little diminution from the changes made by a century and a half, in manners or in words. As his personages act upon principles arising from genuine passion, very little modified by particular forms, their pleasures and vexations are communicable to all times and to all places; they are natural, and therefore durable: the adventitious peculiarities of personal habits are only superficial dyes, bright and pleasing for a little while, yet soon fading to a dim tinct, without any remains of former lustre; but the discriminations of true passion are the colours of nature: they pervade the whole mass, and can only perish with the body that exhibits them. The accidental compositions of heterogeneous modes are dissolved by the chance which combined them; but the uniform simplicity of primitive qualities neither admits increase, nor suffers decay. The sand heaped by one flood is scattered by another, but the rock always continues in its place. The stream of time, which is continually washing the dissoluble fabrics of other poets, passes without injury by the adamant of Shakespeare.

"If there be, what I believe there is, in every nation, a style which never becomes obsolete, a certain mode of phraseology so consonant and congenial to the analogy and principles of its respective language, as to remain settled and unaltered; this style is probably to be sought in the common intercourse of life, among those who speak only to be understood, without ambition of elegance,

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elegance. The polite are always catching modish innovations, and the learned depart from established forms of speech, in hope of finding or making better; those who wish for distinction forsake the vulgar, when the vulgar is right; but there is a conversation above grossness, and below refinement, where propriety resides, and where this poet seems to have gathered his comic dialogue. He is therefore more agreeable to the ears of the present age than any other author equally remote, and among his other excellencies deserves to be studied as one of the original masters of our language.

"These observations are to be considered not as unexceptionably constant, but as containing general and predominant truth. Shakespeare's familiar dialogue is affirmed to be smooth and clear, yet not wholly without ruggedness or difficulty; as a country may be eminently fruitful, though it has spots unfit for cultivation: his characters are praised as natural, though their sentiments are sometimes forced, and their actions improbable; as the earth upon the whole is spherical, though its surface is varied with protuberances and cavities.

"Shakespeare with his excellencies has likewise faults, and faults sufficient to obscure and overwhelm any other merit. I shall shew them in the proportion in which they appear to me, without envious malignity or superstitious veneration. No question can be more innocently discussed than a dead poet's pretensions to renown; and little regard is due to that bigotry which sets candour higher than truth.

"His first defect is that to which may be imputed most of the evil in books or in men. He sacrifices virtue to convenience, and is so much more careful to please than to instruct, that he seems to write without any moral purpose. From his writings indeed a system of social duty may be selected, for he that

thinks reasonably must think morally; but his precepts and axioms drop casually from him; he makes no just distribution of good or evil, nor is always careful to shew in the virtuous a disapprobation of the wicked; he carries his persons indifferently through right and wrong, and at the close dismisses them without further care, and leaves their examples to operate by chance. This fault the barbarity of his age cannot extenuate; for it is always a writer's duty to make the world better, and justice is a virtue independent on time or place.

"The plots are often so loosely formed, that a very slight consideration may improve them, and so carelessly pursued, that he seems not always fully to comprehend his own design. He omits opportunities of instructing or delighting, which the train of his story seems to force upon him, and apparently rejects those exhibitions which would be more affecting, for the sake of those which are more easy.

"It may be observed, that in many of his plays the latter part is evidently neglected. When he found himself near the end of his work, and in view of his reward, he shortened the labour to snatch the profit. He therefore remits his efforts where he should most vigorously exert them, and his catastrophe is improbably produced or imperfectly represented.

"He had no regard to distinction of time or place, but gives to one age or nation, without scruple, the customs, institutions, and opinions of another, at the expence not only of likelihood, but of possibility. These faults Pope has endeavoured, with more zeal than judgment, to transfer to his imagined interpolators. We need not wonder to find Hector quoting Aristotle, when we see the loves of Theseus and Hippolyta combined with the gothic mythology of fairies. Shakespeare, indeed, was not the only violator of chronology, for in the same age Sidney, who wanted

wanted not the advantages of learning, has, in his *Arcadia*, confounded the pastoral with the feudal times, the days of innocence, quiet, and security, with those of turbulence, violence, and adventure.

"In his comic scenes he is seldom very successful, when he engages his characters in reciprocations of smartness and contests of sarcasm; their jests are commonly gross, and their pleasantries licentious; neither his gentlemen nor his ladies have much delicacy, nor are sufficiently distinguished from his clowns by any appearance of refined manners. Whether he represented the real conversation of his time is not easy to determine: the reign of Elizabeth is commonly supposed to have been a time of stateliness, formality, and

reserve; yet perhaps the relaxations of that severity were not very elegant. There must, however, have been always some modes of gaiety preferable to others, and a writer ought to chuse the best.

"In tragedy his performance seems constantly to be worse, as his labour is more. The effusions of passion, which exigence forces out, are for the most part striking and energetic; but whenever he solicits his invention, or strains his faculties, the offspring of his throes is tumour, meanness, tediousness, and obscurity."

A fine monument, erected in 1741, to the memory of Shakespeare, in Westminster Abbey, was under the direction of the Earl of Burlington, Dr. Mead, Mr. Pope, and Mr. Martin.

BIOGRAPHIANA;

OR, ANECDOTES OF ILLUSTRIOUS PERSONS.

NUMBER XIV.

Sir JOHN TABER, *Knt.*

WAS an apothecary's apprentice at Cambridge, and was taught by Ray, the naturalist, the method of administering that divine remedy the bark. He was sent for to Paris by Louis XIV. to give it to his son the Grand Dauphin, who had long been ill of an ague. The French physicians did not, however, chuse to permit Taber to prescribe for their royal patient, till he had given them a regular and philosophical description of an ague. "An ague, gentlemen," said he, "is a disorder that I can cure, and that you cannot." Louis ordered him to administer his remedy to his son, who immediately recovered. Louis gave Taber two thousand louis d'ors, and our Charles the Second created him a knight. The derivation of the word *ague* has puzzled many persons. It comes from the Saxon word *agin*, to tremble; in that language, *agis* is fear.

M. ADAM.

This excellent man was preceptor

to the late Prince of Conti, and not only instilled good principles into his royal pupil, but gave them effect by his own good example. His pupil, who commanded at the siege of Philipburgh in the year 1734, by way of encouraging his soldiers, who were sadly hurt by perpetual rains and a damp soil, used to lay in the waggons. The tutor, in spite of his age and infirmities, thought it right to do what his pupil did. His zeal and his attention cost him his life. M. Adam, before he died, was preparing two editions of that entertaining Greek miscellany, *Athenæus*; one, of the original Greek, the other in French. *Athenæus* is handed down to us extremely corrupt in the text. M. Adam had restored six thousand passages. The old French translation of *Athenæus* is very difficult to be met with, and, execrable as it is, sells very dear. M. Adam's translation of it has been recovered lately, and l'Abbé Defaunay, librarian to the king of France, was engaged

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to publish it. A celebrated Greek scholar and schoolmaster, near London, promised his friends, some years ago, to publish an edition of *Athenæus*; for which, indeed, his knowledge of the Greek language, and his particular attention to the metrical part of it, eminently qualify him. We fear that an occupation of much greater utility perhaps, though not of equal elegance, has prevented him from keeping his word.

FONTENELLE.

This elegant writer's definition of a courtier, "*Un glorieux que passe sa vie à faire des bassesses*," is nearly as good as the celebrated one of the regent Duke of Orleans.—D'Alembert (one does not well know why) accuses this ingenious writer of being occasionally too familiar in his style: Fontenelle generally aims at a pointed observation, told in a simple phrase, and in this he succeeds; in him, differently from the description of the chariot of the sun by Ovid, *Materia superabat opus*. His eloges were always spoken of with great commendation by that acute critic, Dr. Johnson, who, in his *Lives of the Poets*, has occasionally imitated his points and antithesis, without his sportiveness of manner, and simplicity of diction. D'Alembert, who succeeded him as secretary to the French academy, has attempted to imitate him in his very entertaining history of the deceased members of the French academy; a publication which should take place in every country, where there is a literary or scientific society of any note, and which, though not yet adopted in the Royal and Antiquarian Societies at London, has taken place in those at Dublin and Manchester.

Dr. JOHNSON.

One of the most happy applications of a quotation from a classical author, is that from Lucan, in Dr. Johnson's preface to Shakespeare; a work, what Dr. Adam Smith said,

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was the most manly piece of criticism that was ever written. Voltaire had formerly abused Shakespeare for not observing the unities. Dr. Johnson applies to him, what Julius Cæsar is made by Lucan to say to Metellus, the feeble but patriotic tribune of Rome, who refused the Conqueror admittance into the public treasury, as being contrary to the laws of the empire—

—Non usque adio permiscuit imis
Longus summa dies, ut non si voce Metellii
Serventur Leges, maleant a Cæsare tolli.

Not yet has time, in its revolving round,
Things high with low, thus ventur'd to
confound,
But that the laws of proud imperial Rome,
By Cæsar broken, meet a nobler doom;
Then if through ages unimpair'd they stand,
They own their safety to Metellus' hand.

La METTRIE.

How often are men's minds and manners of thinking dependent on accident and external circumstances. La Mettrie was physician to the Count of Grammont's regiment in very early life, and at the siege of Philipsburgh was wounded. On finding that his understanding became more enfeebled, as his body became more debilitated, in consequence of his loss of blood, he imagined that the soul was merely a companion to the body, and that it died with it. In consequence of this opinion, he wrote his first book on materialism, or *l'Histoire Naturelle de l'ame*. This book gave so much offence in France, that he was obliged to take refuge in Berlin, where he produced some other publications on the same subject, as *Homme Machine*, *Homme Plante*, &c. If La Mettrie prescribed medicine on others with no more success than on himself, his practice (it is to be hoped) was not very great, for on having over-eaten himself, and finding his body extremely oppressed with indigestion, he caused himself to be bled eight times, and died in the warm bath, during the last bleeding. One patient, an English nobleman, he had, at Berlin, which made the late king

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of Prussia say, that "La Mettrie was now a very happy man, as he had met with a person more absurd than himself." His Penelope, or Machiavel en Medicine, giving an account of the tricks and charlatanism of physic, is an entertaining book: it is become very scarce; the title is, "Penelope ou le Machiavel en Medicine, 3 tomes 12mo. 1748." La Mettrie wrote with great vehemence, and not always with great correctness. Voltaire used to call him, *Un fou, qui n'écrivoit que dans l'ivresse.*"

Cardinal du Bois.

M. de St. Simon, in his memoirs, affects to speak of du Bois as an ignorant man, and as a man of a very common understanding. D'Alembert, in his eulogy, says that this is by no means true, and that he was a man of sense, as well as of parts. The regent sent him to England, to conclude the quadruple alliance, which was so pleasing to George the First, that he gave him a pension, and asked for the archbishopric of Cambray for him, upon the death of the great Fenelon. He afterwards, though he was the son of an apothecary, became a cardinal and prime minister of France. In this situation, however, he told Fontenelle, how much happier a man he was, when he lived in a garret near the Pont Neuf, than when he resided at the palace of Versailles. "Ambition," added he, "n'a de bonheur à attendre, ni avant d'être satisfaite, ni après l'avoir été." The Cardinal, who was not supposed to be over-scrupulous in his religious notions, died without the sacraments of the catholic church, pretending that there was a certain ceremony attending the giving them to a cardinal; the enquiries into which took up so much time, that his eminence was dead before the point was settled. Pope Leo the Tenth died without the sacraments, it is said; this occasioned the following distich:

*Sacra, sub extremâ (si forte requiritis) horâ
Cur Leo non potuit sumere? Vendiderat.*

For sacraments did dying Leo call?
Ah no! he knew that he had sold them all.

A relation of Cardinal du Bois erected a most magnificent mausoleum to his memory, in one of the churches of Paris. The difficulty in writing an epitaph for it, upon a man whose life was not the most decent and honourable, was evaded by inserting merely upon the stone the catalogue of his dignities and places, and concluding from scripture—

*Quid autem hi sunt tituli, nisi arcus
coloratus, & fumus ad modicum
parens.*

*Viator,
Solidiora, & stabiliora bona, mortuo
precare.*

But alas! what are all these titles!
They vanish like the coloured
brow of heaven, and the unsub-
stantial smoke.

*Passenger,
Entreat the God of mercy to bestow
more solid and more substantial
blessings upon the deceased.*

Fontenelle is said to have furnished the idea, and who had another difficulty to overcome, when he made the usual harangue to the Cardinal on his becoming a member of the Academy of Sciences. The two following lines were written over the entrance of one of the burying-grounds of Paris—

*Tous ces morts ont veçu. Toi que vis, te
mourras
L'instant fatal approche, & tu n'y penses
pas.*

All these that here in dull oblivion lie,
Like thee here liv'd, and thou like them
must die;
E'en now, this instant, thoughtless as thou
art,
O'er thy devoted head Death waves his dart.

The conclusion of Dr. Johnson's epitaph on Mr. Thrale is very good.

*Abi viator,
Et rerum humanarum vicibus
exploratis
Æternitatem cogita.*

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Return, traveller, and after having considered the changes of human affairs, meditate upon eternity.

JOANNE D'ARC.

For the disgrace of England, the following inscription is placed upon the fountain at Rouen, in Normandy, near to which Joanne d'Arc was burnt.

Joannæ d'Arc.

Quæ sexu sæmina, armis vir.

Fortitudini Heros.

Post aureliam obsidione liberatum

Ductum per medios hostes ad sacram

Rhemensiam

Carolus VII.

Atque assertum eidem pluribus
victoriis Solium

Ad compendium capta, Anglistradita

Immentâ sorte

In isto Urbis angulo, Combusta
Die Maii xxx. Anno mccccxxxi.

England may indeed well say,

— Pudet hæc opprobria nobis
Et decî potuisse, & non potuisse risibile,

S C R A P I A N A.

NUMBER II.

WHEN one of the Cecil family, in conversation with Mary, Queen of Scots, was talking of the wisdom of his mistress, Queen Elizabeth, she said, "Alas! there is no such thing as a wise woman; the wisest of us all is only a little less foolish than her neighbours."

Louis XIth of France said nearly the same thing, when one of his courtiers told him he would make a present of a very fine falcon he had, to the Dame de Beargen, the wisest woman in France; "Dame sage ne fut jamais," replied Louis, laughing.

Louis XIV. was more flattered, I suppose, than any sovereign that ever lived. He had given a pair of globes to a public library in France, on which Cornelli, the jesuit, wrote this distich, as applicable, most assuredly, to the first person who came into the library, or to the monarch; yet they were intended to convey a fine compliment.

Inclita Gallorum, prop quanta potentia
regis,
En digeta cœli voluit, et orbis opus.

To Gallia's king what wond'rous power is
given,
His very finger moves both earth and heaven.

When the sister to a very popular minister was once told by an

acquaintance of hers, who was advancing in years, that he was afraid he was going to become an old woman—"I was afraid," replied she, "that you were growing to become an old man, which you know is a much worse thing."

When some one was talking on infidelity before —, who was old and sick, he said, "Why will you endeavour to take away the pillow from an old and an aching head?"

Pascal says, "All the misery of mankind arises, from their not being able to sit in a chair."

"What, Sir," said one of the dauphins of France to an historiographer of that country, "what, Sir, will you do, when you are to speak of an ancestor of mine, who was a great rogue?" "Sir," replied the historiographer, "I shall say he was a great rogue."

When Lord L. — was going to pay a visit to a neighbour of his, who was a very great financier, bishop Warburton, in his very lively way, said, "Party, like adversity, bring us acquainted with strange companions; now here is a man that does not know that two and two make four, going to a man who knows nothing else."

Of the present rage of philosophising without principles, bishop _____ said very well, "Every man that can rub two sticks together, until fire comes out of them, thinks himself a great philosopher."

Selden says acutely, in the article Liturgy, or his Table talk, "There is no church without a liturgy, nor

indeed can there be conveniently, as there is no school without a grammar. One scholar may be taught otherwise upon his own acumen, but not a whole school. One or two that are piously disposed, may save themselves their own way, but not a whole nation."

A THEORY OF LIGHTNING AND THUNDER STORMS.

BY ANDREW OLIVER, ESQ.

From the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society.

IT has been generally, and, considering the phenomena themselves, very naturally supposed, that the electric charges which are exhibited in repeated flashes of lightning during a thunder storm, are previously accumulated in the vapours which constitute the cloud; and that these vapours, when by any means they become either over-charged with electric matter, or are deprived of their natural quantities of it,* discharge their surplusage to, or receive the necessary supplies from, either the earth or the neighbouring clouds, in successive explosions, till an equilibrium is restored between them. But I shall endeavour in the following pages to prove, that these charges reside, not in the cloud or vapours of which it consists, but in the air which sustains them; and that, previous to the formation of the cloud, or even the ascent of the vapours of which it is formed. But, in order to convey my ideas upon this subject with perspicuity, I find it necessary to introduce them with a quotation from doctor Franklin's letters on electricity, in which the doctor compares water, whether in its natural state, or rarefied into vapours, to a sponge; and the electric fluid, in connection with it, to water applied to the sponge.

"When a sponge (says he) is somewhat condensed by being squeezed between the fingers, it will not receive and retain so much water as when it is in its more loose and open state. If more squeezed and condensed, some of the water will come out of its inner parts, and flow on the surface. If the pressure of the fingers be entirely removed, the sponge will not only resume what was lately forced out, but attract an additional quantity. As the sponge in its rarer state will naturally attract and absorb more water; and in its denser state will naturally attract and absorb less water; we may call the quantity it absorbs in either state, its natural quantity, the state being considered."

The doctor then supposes, "that what the sponge is to water, the same is water to the electric fluid; that when a portion of water is in its common dense state, it can hold no more electric fluid than it has; if any be added it spreads upon the surface." He adds, "when the same portion of water is rarefied into vapour and forms a cloud, it is then capable of receiving and absorbing a much greater quantity, as there is room for each particle to have an electric

* A body is said to be electrically charged, whenever it has either more or less than its natural quantity of electric matter.

"electric atmosphere. Thus water
"in its rarefied state, or in the form
"of a cloud, will be in a negative
"state of electricity; it will have
"less than its natural quantity,
"that is, less than it is naturally
"capable of attracting and absorb-
"ing in that state."*

The foregoing passages I have copied verbatim from that celebrated electrician, as I purpose in the course of this essay to avail myself of his idea of the sponge, in order to illustrate a different theory of thunder clouds, which I now beg leave, though with diffidence of my own judgment, and with all due deference to that of so great a man, to substitute in the room of the foregoing; which I must confess at first sight carries great appearance of probability with it, and is highly corroborated by the curious and beautiful experiment the doctor made with the silver cann, brass chain, and lock of cotton.†

But in reading doctor Priestley's history of electricity, some thoughts of signior Beccaria occurred, which satisfied me that this hypothesis, however ingenious and plausible, was insufficient for the purpose of accounting for the rise and phenomena of thunder storms, the frequent extent and violence of which seem to require a more general cause than that hinted above, to supply them with sufficient quantities of electric matter.

"Considering the vast quantity
"of electric fire that appears in the
"most simple thunder storms (says
"doctor Priestley)‡ signior Beccaria
"thinks it impossible that any
"cloud, or number of clouds, should
"ever contain it all, so as either to
"discharge or receive it. Besides,
"during the progress and increase
"of the storm, though the lightning
"frequently struck to the earth,
"the same clouds were the next
"moment ready to make a still

"greater discharge, and his ap-
"paratus continued to be as much
"affected as ever. The clouds
"must consequently have received
"at one place the moment that a
"discharge was made from them in
"another."

Signior Beccaria accounts for this vast exhibition of electric fire from a thunder cloud, by supposing that some parts of the earth may become more highly charged with the electric fluid than others, and that great quantities of it do sometimes rush out of particular parts, and rise through the air into the higher regions of the atmosphere; other parts of the earth becoming casually destitute of their natural quantity of the fluid at the same time, and ready to receive it: that a chain of clouds nearly contiguous, or a single cloud extending from one of these regions to another, in an opposite state, might serve as a conductor or conductors to restore the electric equilibrium between them, which would equally cause thunder and lightening in both regions, and throughout the intermediate clouds. § Here doctor Priestley justly observes, that "the greatest difficulty attending this theory of the origin of thunder storms relates to the collection and insulation of electric matter within the body of the earth." With regard to the collection, the doctor observes that his author "has nothing particularly to say:" nor indeed without a previous insulation of those parts of the earth which may be concerned in the production of the phenomena, can any such collection take place. Now if we consider that in order to have two regions of the earth thus insulated, and of sufficient dimensions, one to supply, and the other to receive the quantities of electric fire discharged during one thunder storm of any extent and continuance, the parts

* Franklin's Letters, page 119.

+ Page 121.

‡ Priestley's History of Electricity, page 325.

§ Ibid.

parts insulated must be not superficial regions, but must reach to a considerable depth; and we must suppose, with doctor Priestley, "that the electric matter which forms "and animates the thunder cloud, "issues from places far below the "surface of the earth, and that it buries itself there."* But, with deference to the judgment of that unwearied friend to science, I apprehend that such an insulation is hardly consistent with that distribution of conductors, especially of water, which provident nature has made through all parts of our globe; the highest mountains being furnished with internal springs and fountains, and watered externally by rivulets, which derive their origin from condensing mists or melting snows upon their summits: while the surface of the earth in general, not excepting the most sandy deserts, affords supplies of water to those who will be at the pains of digging for it. If then the vapours which constitute the cloud are, of themselves, incapable of furnishing such quantities of electric matter as are necessary for the repeated discharges in a severe thunder storm, as signior Beccaria thinks they are, and as seems to me indubitable; and if the insulations of large portions of the surface or exterior parts of the earth, which are absolutely necessary to support Beccaria's hypothesis, cannot take place; which, how they can in our terraqueous mass, is difficult to conceive, consistently with the hitherto discovered properties of the electric fluid: we must seek for some other substance in nature which may be capable of affording those reiterated supplies, of that powerful element which are usually exhibited in a thunder storm. This I presume, we shall find in the atmosphere over our heads; not in the vapours which float therein, but in the air itself which sustains them.

Air is by electricians justly classed with electric substances, as it possesses the same general properties in common with others of that denomination, particular instances of which may occur in the following pages; wherein I shall endeavour to prove,

I. That the electric capacity of air is lessened by condensation.

II. That this capacity is increased by heat.

Premising that by air I here intend that fluid in its common compressed state with us near the surface of the earth; and by its electric capacity, that state of it which disposes it, under any circumstances whatever, "to attract, absorb and retain," what doctor Franklin calls its natural quantity, or the quantity which is natural to it in that state.

I. I shall endeavour to prove that the electric capacity of air is lessened by condensation.

That a change of density in air produces also a change in its electric capacity (as above defined), follows from some experiments of monsieur de Faye and doctor Priestley, the former of whom found upon repeated trials, that no electricity could be excited by the friction of a glass tube in which the air was condensed.† The doctor, repeating the experiments with some variation, found, that when one additional atmosphere was forced into the tube, the electricity excited by rubbing it was scarcely discernible. Now, though the effect was a suspension of the operation of the excited tube without, the cause was evidently the condensed state of the air within; which may be accounted for if we consider, that although it is certain from many experiments that glass is absolutely impermeable to the electric fluid, insomuch that it cannot force its way through a pane of glass, or the sides of a phial, without breaking the

* Priestley, page 335.

† Page 50.

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the glass, as was the case in those spontaneous discharges of several of the jars in the electrical battery mentioned by doctor Priestley;* yet it is as certain, that this impermeability of the glass to the fluid itself, is no obstruction to the operation of that repellent power upon which the visible effects of this element seem principally to depend; which power undeniably acts from one side of the glass, through the very substance of it, upon the same fluid on the other side, provided there be any other substance on that side capable of receiving it when thus repelled.

This is the case in the Leyden experiment in every form in which it can be made; the charge given to one side of the glass, repelling and throwing off an equal quantity of the electric fluid from the opposite surface, through the non-electric coating in contact with it; nor can any charge be given to either side without a proportional discharge from the other. In like manner, when an uncoated tube is excited by friction, a quantity of the fluid, equal to that which is excited and condensed upon the outer surface, is thrown out from the inner, provided there is any substance within in a capacity to receive and absorb it, without which no excitation can take place. "A glass tube, out of which the air is exhausted, dis- covers no signs of electricity out- wards,"† there being no substance within capable of receiving and absorbing the fluid from the inner

surface, which though repelled from it inwards during the operation, yet returns to it again instantly upon a cessation of the action of the rubber without. But upon a readmission of air the excitation is easy, and is attended with the usual effects. Air then, which is the only substance admitted (excepting perhaps a few straggling vapours which float in it) receives and absorbs a sufficient quantity of the electric fluid from the inner surface to permit an excitation of the tube which contains it. But as we have seen that air when condensed within, prevents the visible effects of an excitation, equally with a total vacuity, we may adopt the idea of doctor Franklin, *mutatis mutandis*, and conclude that "what the sponge is to water the same is air to the electric fluid:" at least that this capacity of air is lessened by condensation in a manner, not indeed perfectly similar, but somewhat analogous to that in which the capacity of a sponge to receive and retain water is lessened by compression. Agreeably to which idea, the condensed air within the tube, having its electric capacity filled and even crowded with the electric matter, will receive none from the inner surface, which, on the contrary, is thereby prevented from being forced out of it, without which none can be forced into or condensed upon the outer surface, so as to exhibit any signs of electricity; as observed before.

[*To be continued.*]

OBSERVATIONS ON BEES.

BY J. HUNTER, F.R.S.

(*Concluded from Page 258.*)

Of the Male Parts.

THE male parts of generation, in the common bee, are much larger than in the humble bee. This we suppose necessary, con-

sidering the vast number of eggs the common bee lays, more than the humble bee does.

The external parts of generation of the male bee, are rather more under

* Priestley's History of Electricity, page 489.

† Page 550.

under the belly, than in the others of this tribe; not so much at the termination of the belly; and they are rather more exposed, the two last scales, especially the under one, not projecting so much: the two holders are not so projecting beyond their base, nor are they so hooked, or sharp, as in the humble bee; hardly deserving the name of holders. From the external parts, passes up into the abdomen a pretty large sheath, whose termination incloses the glans penis. It is a bulbous part, having a dark coloured horny part upon it, which has two processes near its opening externally, one on each side, of a yellow colour: it has another process, which is white, and seems to be a gland. It can be made to pass along this sheath, or prepuce, and appear externally: I have been able, with a pair of forceps, to invert the sheath, beginning externally at the mouth, and pulling out a little at a time, by shifting my hold, till the glans has appeared externally.

The internal parts are the testicles, with their appendages. The testicles are two small oblong bodies, lying near the back, having a vast number of air-vessels passing into them, and ramifying upon them. They are of a pale yellowish colour. From their lower ends pass down ducts, which may be called *vasa deferentia*, and which enter two bags; these two bags, into which the *vasa deferentia* enter, are probably reservoirs for the semen. From the union of these two bags passes out a duct which runs towards the termination of the abdomen, and ends in the penis. These three parts, namely, testicles with their ducts, the two bags, and the duct arising from them, which I have termed urethra, are all folded on each other, so as to appear as one body.

In the introduction to this account of bees I observed, that several things in their œconomy

might escape us if we considered them alone, but might be made out in other insects: an instance of this occurs in the impregnation of the female bee. The death of the males in the month of August, so that not one is left, and yet the queen to breed in the month of March, must puzzle any one not acquainted with the mode of impregnation of the females of most insects. Insects, respecting the males, are of two kinds; one, where the male lives through the winter, as well as the female; and the other, where every male of that species dies before the winter comes on; among which may be considered, as a third, those where both male and female die the same year. Of the first, I shall only give the common fly as an instance; of the second I shall just mention all of the bee tribe; and the third may be illustrated in the silk-worm. The mode of impregnation in the first, is its being continued uninterruptedly through the whole period of laying eggs; while in the second, the copulation is in store; and, in the third the female lays up, by the copulation, a store of semen, although the male is alive: of this I shall now give an explanation in the silk moth, which may be applied to the bee, and many other insects.

In dissecting the female parts in the silk-moth, I discovered a bag lying on what may be called the vagina, or common oviduct, whose mouth, or opening, was external, but it had a canal of communication between it and the common oviduct. In dissecting these parts before copulation, I found this bag empty, and when I dissected them after, I found it full. Suspecting this to contain the semen of the male, I immediately conceived the following experiment: I opened the female as soon as the male had united to her, and found the penis in the opening of this bag, and by opening the duct where the penis lay, I observed the semen lying on

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on the end of the penis. In another, I observed the bag to fill in the time of copulation: and in a pair that died in the act, I found the penis in this passage.

When we consider the impregnation of the egg in the silk-worm, we may observe the following circumstances:

First, many of the ova are completely formed, and covered with a hard shell, before copulation: secondly, the animals are a vast while in the act of copulation: and thirdly, the bags at the anus are filled during the time of copulation. From the first observation it appears, that the egg can receive the male influence through the hard or horny part of the shell. To know how far the whole, or only a part of the eggs, were impregnated by each copulation, I made the following experiments.* I took a female just emerged out of her cell, and put a male to her, and allowed them to be connected their full time. They were in copulation ten hours. I then put her into a box by herself, and when she laid her eggs, I numbered the different parcels as she laid them, viz. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5: these eggs I preserved, and in the summer following I perceived that the No. 5 was as prolific as the No. 1: so that this one copulation was capable of impregnating the whole brood: and therefore the male influence must go either along the oviduct its whole length, and impregnate the incomplete eggs, as well as the complete, which appears to me not likely; or those not yet formed were impregnated from the reservoir in the act of laying: for I conceived that these bags, by containing semen, had a power of impregnating the egg as it passed along to the anus, just as it traversed the mouth of the duct of communication.

Finding that eggs completely

formed, could be impregnated by the semen, and also finding that the before-mentioned bag was a reservoir for the semen till wanted, I wished next to discover if they could be impregnated from the semen of this bag; but as this must be done without the act of copulation, I conceived it proper, first, to see whether the ova of insects might be impregnated without the natural act of copulation, by applying the male semen over the ova, just as they were laid. The following experiments were made on the silk-moth:

Experiment I. I took a female moth, as soon as she escaped from her pod, and kept her carefully by herself, upon a clean card, till she began to lay; then I took males that were ready for copulation, opened them, exposing their seminal ducts, and after cutting into these, collected their semen with a hair pencil: with this semen I covered the ova, as soon as they passed out of the vagina. The card with these eggs, having a written account of the experiment upon it, I kept in a box by itself. In the ensuing season, eight of the ova hatched at the same time with others, naturally impregnated. Thus, then, I ascertained that the eggs could be impregnated by art, after they were laid.

The ova laid by females that had not been impregnated, did not stick where they were laid: so that the semen would appear not only to impregnate the ova, but also to be the means of attaching them.

To know whether that bag in the female silk-moth, which increased at the time of copulation, was filled with the semen of the male, I made the following experiment:

Experiment II. I took a female moth, as soon as she had escaped from the pod, and kept her on a card

* All these experiments on the silk-moth were begun in the summer 1767, and repeated by Mr. Bell in the year 1770.

card till she began to lay. I then took females that were fully impregnated before they began to lay, and dissected out that bag which I supposed to be the receptacle for the male semen; and wetting a camel hair pencil with this matter, covered the ova as soon as they passed out of the vagina. These ova were laid carefully on the clean card, and kept till the ensuing season, when they all hatched at the same time with those naturally impregnated.

This proves that this bag is the receptacle for the semen, and gradually decreases as the eggs are laid.

Of the Sting of the Bee.

I have observed that it is only the queen and the labourers that have stings; and this provision of a sting is perhaps as curious a circumstance as any attending the bee, and probably is one of the characters of the bee tribe.

The apparatus itself is of a very curious construction, fitted for inflicting a wound, and at the same time conveying a poison into that wound. The apparatus consists of two piercers, conducted in a groove, or director, which appears to be itself the sting. This groove is somewhat thick at its base, but terminates in a point; it is articulated to the last scale of the upper side of the abdomen by thirteen thin scales, six on each side, and one behind the rectum. These scales inclose, as it were, the rectum or anus all round; they can hardly be said to be articulated to each other, only attached by thin membranes, which allow of a variety of motions; three of them, however, are attached more closely to a round and curved process, which comes from the basis of the groove in which the sting lies, as also to the curved arms of the sting, which spread out externally. The two stings may be said to begin by these two curved processes at their union with the scales, and con-

verging towards the groove at its base, which they enter, then pass along it to its point. They are serrated on their outer edges, near to the point. These two stings can be thrust out beyond the groove, although not far, and they can be drawn within it; and, I believe, can be moved singly. All these parts are moved by muscles, which we may suppose are very strong in them, much stronger than in other animals; and these muscles give motion in almost all directions, but more particularly outwards. It is wonderful how deep they will pierce solid bodies with the sting. I have examined the length they have pierced the palm of the hand, which is covered with a thick cuticle: it has often been about the one-twelfth of an inch. To perform this by mere force two things are necessary, power of muscles, and strength of the sting; neither of which they seem to possess in sufficient degree. I own I do not understand this operation. I am apt to conceive there is something in it distinct from simple force applied to one end of a body; for if this was simply the case, the sting of the bee could not be made to pierce by any power applied to its base, as the least pressure bends it in any direction: it is possible the serrated edges may assist, by cutting their way in, like a saw.

The apparatus for the poison consists of two small ducts, which are the glands that secrete the poison: these two lie in the abdomen, among the air-cells, &c.: they both unite into one, which soon enters into, or forms, an oblong bag, like a bladder of urine; at the opposite end of which passes out a duct, which runs towards the angle where the two stings meet; and entering between the two stings, is continued between them in a groove, which forms a canal by the union of the two stings to this point. There is another duct on the right of that described above, which

which is not so circumscribed, and contains a thicker matter, which, as far as I have been able to judge, enters along with the other: but it is the first that contains the poison, which is a thin, clear fluid. To ascertain which was the poison, I dipped points of needles into both, and pricked the back of the hand; and those punctures that had the fluid from the first-described bags in them grew sore and inflamed, while the others did not. From the stings having serrated edges, it is seldom the bees can disengage them; and they immediately upon stinging endeavour to make their escape, but are generally prevented, as it were caught in their own trap; and the force they use commonly drags out the whole of the apparatus for stinging, and also part of the bowels; so that the bee most frequently falls a sacrifice immediately upon having effected its purpose. Upon a superficial view, one conceives, that the first intention of the bee having a sting is evident; one sees it has property to defend, and that therefore it is fitted for defence; but why it should naturally fall a sacrifice in its own defence, does not so readily appear: besides, all bees have stings, although all bees have not property to defend, and therefore are not under the same necessity of being so provided. Probably its having a sting to use, was sufficient for nature to defend the bee, without using it liberally; and the loss of a bee or two, when they did sting, was of no consequence; for it is seldom that more die.

I have now carried the operations of a hive, or the œconomy of the bee, completely round the year; in which time they revolve to the first point we set out at, and the continuance is only a repetition of the same revolutions as I have now described; but those revolutions occasion a series of effects in the comb, which effects in time produce variations in the life of the hive. Be-

sides, there are observations that have little to do with the œconomy of a year, but include the whole of the life of this insect, or at least its hive.

Of the Life of the Bee.

I have observed that the life of the male is only one summer, or rather a month or two; and this we know from there being none in the winter, otherwise their age could not be ascertained, as it is impossible to learn the age of either the queen or labourers. Some suppose that it is the young bees which swarm; and most probably it is so: but I think it is probable also, that a certain number of young ones may be retained to keep up the stock, as we must suppose that many of the old ones are, from accidents of various kinds, lost to the hive; and we could conceive, that a hive three or four years old might not have an original bee in it, although a bee might live twice that time. But there must be a period for a bee to live; and if I were to judge from analogy, I should say, that a bee's natural life is limited to a certain number of seasons; viz. one bee does not live one year, another two, another three, &c. I even conceive that no individual insect of any species lives one month longer than the others of the same species. I believe this is the case with all insects; but the age of either a labourer or a queen may never be discovered. One might suppose that the life of a bee, and the time a hive can possibly last, would be nearly equal: although this is not absolutely necessary, because they can produce a succession, which they probably do; for I am very ready to imagine, that after the first brood in the season, all the last winter bees die, and the hive is occupied with this first brood; and that they breed the first swarm, or that the old breed the whole of this season's breeding, and then die, and those that continue through the winter are the young; and if so,

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then they follow the same course with their progenitors.

The comb of a hive may be said to be the furniture and storehouse of the bees, which by use wear out; and from the description I have given, it will appear that the comb in time will be rendered unfit for use. I observed, that they did not clean out the excrement of the maggot, and that the maggot, before it moved into the chrysalis state, lined the cell with a silk, similar to many other insects. It lines the whole cell, top, sides, and bottom; the two last are permanent; and at the bottom it covers with this lining its own excrement.* Why the bee maggot is formed to do this, is, probably, because honey afterwards is to be put into this cell; so that the honey is laid into this last silken bag. How often they may breed in the same cell I do not know, but I have known them three times in the same season; each time the excrement has been accumulating, and the cell has been lined three times with silk. From this account we must see that a cell, in time, will be so far filled up as to render it unfit for breeding. On separating the lining of silk, which is easiest done at the bottom, on account of the dried excrement between each lining, I have counted above twenty different linings in one cell, and found the cell about one quarter, or one third, filled up: when such a cell, or a piece of comb with such cells, is steeped in water, so as to soften the excrement between the linings, they are separated from each other at the bottom by the swelling of the excrement, so that they can be easily counted. A piece of comb so circumstanced, when boiled for the wax, will keep its form, and the small quantity of wax is squeezed out at different parts, as if squeezed out of a sponge,

and runs together into the crevices; while a piece of comb, that never has been bred in, even of the same hive, melts almost wholly down. It is this wax that has the fine yellow, while the other of the same hives, although brown, yet shall be white when melted; so that I was led to imagine the wax took its tinge from the farina, excrement, &c. but upon boiling pure wax with such materials, it was not tinged with this transparent yellow, only became dirty. In some of those cells that had probably been bred in twenty times, or more, when soaked so as to make the excrement swell, I have seen the bottom of the last lining rise even with the mouth, or top of the cell, so that the cavity of the cell was now full: in others, I have seen it rise higher than the mouth, so that the last formed layers were almost inverted, and turned inside out. A piece of such comb, consisting of two rows of cells, is to be considered as a mould, and the lining of silk and the excrement as the cast; when this is boiled, so as either to extract all the wax or mould, or to destroy its original regular formation which constituted the comb, and nothing is left but the cells of silk, &c. they all easily separate from each other, being only so many casts, with the mould destroyed; and the bottoms, which were indented into each other, are very perfect.

From the above account we must see that the combs of a hive can only last a certain number of years; however, to make them last longer, the bees often add a little to the mouth of the cell, which is seldom done with the wax alone, but with a mixture; and they sometimes cover the silk lining of the last chrysalis; but all this makes such cells clumsy, in comparison to the original ones.

Or

* This neither the wasp nor hornet do, although they do not clean out the excrement of their maggots.

OF THE MANNER OF MAKING SALTPETRE IN EUROPE,
AND OF ITS GENERATION.

From Watson's Chemical Essays.

SALTPETRE enters in a large proportion into the composition of gunpowder; hence, after the discovery of gunpowder, all the states of Europe were eager in their endeavours to amass large quantities of saltpetre, and studiously sought out various methods of preparing it; for saltpetre is by many looked upon as the production of art rather than of nature.

Gunpowder was very probably made in England so early as the year 1417. In Henry V.'s directions for equipping his fleet with all requisites, under the general name *stufura*, we find mention made of *carbonarii*, and of *viginti piparum de pulvere de carbonibus salicis*: these twenty pipes of willow-coal powder, could be for no other purpose, one would think, than for the making of gunpowder, if gunpowder itself did not come under that denomination. Three years before this, a proclamation had been issued, forbidding the exportation of gunpowder; and in those early ages of commerce, it may be thought unlikely that gunpowder would be first imported into England, and then exported again. Hollingshed, in his Chronicle, speaks of the capture of two French vessels in 1386, with a great quantity of gunpowder, which, he says, was more worth than all the rest of the cargo; but had no gunpowder been then made in England, it would have been natural for him to have mentioned that circumstance. This, however, is mere conjecture, and a more diligent search into antiquity may, perhaps, shew it to be ill founded. There is a diversity of testimony on this subject; one author asserting, that Queen Elizabeth was the first of our princes who caused gunpowder to be made in England; another

informing us, that a house near the Tower, in which gunpowder was made, was blown up in the reign of Edward the Sixth, and fifteen gunpowder-makers slain by the accident. But, whenever gunpowder was first made in England, it is not without reason, that we suppose it to have been made of saltpetre manufactured in England; since it is not at all likely that any foreign power would permit the exportation of so important, and, at that period, so scarce a commodity.

Before such large quantities of saltpetre were imported from the East Indies, the manufacturing of it in England was much attended to; though it appears, from a proclamation of Charles the First, in the year 1627, that the saltpetre-makers were never able to furnish the realm with one third part of the saltpetre requisite, especially in time of war. This proclamation was issued in 1627, in consequence of a patent granted, in the year 1625, to Sir John Brooke and Thos. Ruffel, for making saltpetre by a new invention. In this new invention, great use was made of all sorts of urine; for the proclamation orders all persons to save the urine of their families, and as much as they could of that of their cattle, to be fetched away, by the patentees or their assigns, once in twenty-four hours in the summer, and in forty-eight hours in the winter season. This royal proclamation was no small inconvenience to the subject; but it was not so great a one as that, by which the saltpetre-makers were permitted to dig up the floors of all dove-houses, stables, &c. the proprietors being at the same time prohibited from the laying of such floors with any thing but mellow earth. To this grievance all persons had been subjected

subjected by a proclamation in 1625, which was revived in its chief extent in 1634, the new invention not having answered the purpose for which the patent had been granted; and it was not till the year 1656, that an act of parliament passed, forbidding the saltpetre-makers to dig in houses or lands, without leave of the owners.

As in England the earth impregnated with the dung of pigeons, the urine of cattle, &c. was formerly supposed to belong to the crown; so in France, the rubbish of all old houses, the mellow earth of stables, cellars, &c. did belong to the king. In the dominions of the king of Prussia, and in many parts of Germany, the inhabitants are obliged to build mud walls of any fat earth mixed with straw; and these walls, in a longer or shorter time, according to the quality of the materials of which they are built, and the situation in which they are placed, become impregnated with saltpetre.

There are a great many materials from which saltpetre may be made; in general, all animal and vegetable substances, when mixed with limestone earths, or marles of different sorts, in such proportion as to excite a putrefaction in the mass, are proper for this end. The parts of animals, without any addition of earth, are said to yield saltpetre by putrefaction; urine slightly putrefied gives saltpetre in a small quantity; being fully putrefied, it yields it more abundantly. Kunckel took fresh blood, and left it to putrefy in a warm place till it was reduced to earth; he obtained, by this means, above five pounds of saltpetre from one hundred pounds of blood. If this experiment may be generally relied on, it might, perhaps, be worth while to extract the saltpetre from the earth remaining in the blood and garbage holes of slaughter-houses. The method of extracting saltpetre from the earths in which it is generated, is much the same in all countries. It consists in pour-

ing water upon the earths, to dissolve all the salt, of whatever kind, which is contained in them; in passing this water through wood-ashes, in order to supply the unformed parts of the saltpetre with a proper alkaline basis, and in evaporating the solution, till it be of a proper strength to shoot into crystals. The saltpetre obtained by this first crystallization, is seldom pure enough for the purposes of making gunpowder, or of medicine.

I do not know that we have at present any saltpetre works established in England. There have been many projects proposed for making it, both in the last and present century, but they have all ended more to the disadvantage than the emolument of the undertakers. The Society for the Encouragement of Arts and Manufactures in vain proposed premiums for the making of saltpetre, from the year 1756 to 1764: these premiums were never claimed, and a saltpetre work, which was, about that time, established at the expence of above six thousand pounds, was at last abandoned; the proprietors having been experimentally convinced, that they could not afford to sell their saltpetre for less than four times the price of that imported from India. The reason of this constant failure in all attempts to make saltpetre with profit in England, may be attributed partly to the nature of the climate, which probably does not generate saltpetre so abundantly as some other climates do; but principally, it is apprehended, to the dearth of the wood-ashes generally used in preparing this substance, and to the high price of the labour which must be employed in collecting and manufacturing the materials.

How far wood-ashes are in all cases necessary for the extraction of saltpetre from the earths containing it, may be much questioned from the result of the following experiment.

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the dean and chapter at Ely, I took some decayed mortar, which was full of those saline shoots frequently seen on old walls, and boiled it in a proper quantity of water. The water being filtered and evaporated, afforded, in great plenty, fine well-formed crystals of saltpetre: the crystals were taken out and dried, and the remaining part of the solution was again evaporated, and it again yielded very good saltpetre: but I could not observe that there was any occasion for wood-ashes to make any part of the solution crystallize, or that there were formed any crystals either of sea-salt, or of any other salt, except saltpetre.

This experiment, which I repeated more than once, contradicts a very generally received opinion, namely, that saltpetre cannot be made from the rubbish of old buildings, without the concurrence of the salt separable from the ashes of burnt vegetables. It cannot be denied, that the vegetable fixed alkali is one of the constituent parts of saltpetre; but it is contended, that the burning of vegetables is not the only way of procuring that alkali, since we see, from this experiment, that it was as certainly formed in the mortar as the saltpetre itself was.

A few years ago, as some workmen were digging gravel near Bury St. Edmund's, they met with a large solid substance of a white colour, surrounded every way with gravel, and at the distance of twelve or fourteen feet from the surface. They at first mistook it for a lump of chalk; but, upon tasting it, they found it to have the taste of saltpetre. I have a piece of the original lump in my possession. It is a solid mass, very hard; when dissolved and crystallized, it affords crystals, resembling in all their properties the purest saltpetre. Unless more care had been taken in examining the situation of this lump of saltpetre, when it was first discovered, it may be difficult to account for its production; but it is

highly probable, that it was a natural production, and that the ashes of burnt vegetables had never been employed in its formation. The roots of horse-radish penetrate very deep into the earth; and upon enquiry I found, that horse-radish grew upon the surface of the earth where this mass of saltpetre was formed. Whether this plant had contributed to its formation, may be a question worthy the reader's consideration, since we know that many plants, such as borage, fennel, the sun-flower, and tobacco, yield saltpetre.

Another observation, which may be drawn from what has been advanced, respects the nature of those saline efflorescences which were found in the mortar, and are frequently to be met with on old damp walls, and from which the word saltpetre, or salt of stone (*sal petrae*), seems to be derived. Many authors have affirmed, that the salt of these shoots is the mineral fixed alkali. I have reason, from my own experiments on the subject, to believe, that the affirmation is true in some instances; but it must not, I apprehend, be generally admitted, since we have seen that those shoots yield, in some circumstances, not the mineral alkali, but a perfect saltpetre.

With great diffidence I propose it to be considered, whether the same saline shoots, which in some cases constitute the mineral fixed alkali, would not, if left to themselves on the same place where they are produced, be at length converted into saltpetre. The operation of nature in spontaneously producing those shoots of mineral fixed alkali, is in no respect less wonderful than the conversion of the fixed alkali itself, by a longer process, into saltpetre. This conjecture, founded on the different qualities of these saline shoots, and the manner of their being produced, may receive some confirmation from the two following facts. "Near the city of Xen

Xen Si, in China, is a town, about which the land produces three things. One is the soap they use there, called *kien*; they know nothing of ours. After it has rained, if the sun shine, there rise out of the earth certain bladders of thick froth, which are gathered to wash and whiten linen. The second is saltpetre, and common salt the third. Out of twenty pounds of earth, put into a jar, and wrought after their manner, they get twelve pounds of salt, and three of saltpetre." It is probable, that the *kien* here spoken of, as supplying the place of soap, consists in part or wholly of the mineral fixed alkali. "Upon the coast of Coromandel, in a sandy soil, not far from the sea, the inhabitants gather, every morning, an earth abounding with a natural alkali; of this earth they make a ley, which being sharpened by quick-lime, they use in fixing their colours on their linen cloths. But if the alkali be left undisturbed upon the place where it is produced, it spontaneously changes itself into saltpetre." If this sandy earth was washed, common salt and saltpetre might probably be separated from it, as is done from the Chinese earth before mentioned, and the two accounts confirm one another. If these accounts be admitted, they will greatly tend to reconcile the different opinions of chemists concerning the nitre or *natron* of the ancients; some holding it to have been the mineral fixed alkali, and others esteeming it the same with our saltpetre; for it may in fact have been either one or the other, or a mixture of both, according to its age.

It may in the last place be remarked, that sea salt does not always accompany saltpetre in the earths where it is generated, since not a grain of sea salt could be obtained from a large portion of the decayed mortar. From the great quantities of sea salt usually found in saltpetre earths, some chemists

have conjectured, that sea salt was insensibly changed into saltpetre; and others have supposed, that the same natural process which produced saltpetre, produced also sea salt. The fore-mentioned experiment renders this last supposition somewhat doubtful; the matter, however, is not certainly established either way, and there is great room for further investigation.

This leads us to the consideration of a question of very difficult decision—how is saltpetre generated? I am not ashamed to own my inability to answer this question in a manner satisfactory even to myself. There are powers in nature in a great measure unknown to us, by which the parts of matter are subjected to perpetual change, and forced to assume arrangements from which new compounds are constantly resulting.—The sweet, bitter, and aromatic juices of vegetables, the blood, bile, milk, urine, fat, and bones of animals, are all of them as different from the substances from which they are composed, as saltpetre is from the earth from which it is generated: but the one being a more common process of nature than the other, it does not so much astonish us, or excite our curiosity to account for it. The answer of the Spaniard, who was asked if he knew how the saltpetre was yearly regenerated in his grounds, seems to include all that philosophy can say on the subject: "I have two fields; in the one I sow wheat, and it grows; in the other I collect saltpetre."

There was a time when the air was looked upon, by all chemists, as the great storehouse of saltpetre; and the earths in which it was found were supposed to have attracted it, ready formed, from the air. Instead of saltpetre in substance, some later philosophers have supposed that its acid part only exists in the air; and that this acid part, being attracted from the air, unites itself with the earths which yield saltpetre. Others

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are of opinion that the acid of saltpetre does not float in the air as a substance distinct from it, but that it is one of the constituent parts of the air itself; and consequently, if saltpetre be formed by the earths attracting this acid, the air must be decomposed. I know not of any well-conducted experiments, which are so conclusive in favour of this aerial origin of saltpetre, as one of Lemery's is against it. He put some lime into one dish, some salt of tartar into another, and a saltpetre earth, from which he had extracted the salt, into a third. He placed these three dishes in a situation open to the access of the air, and sheltered from the sun; he let them continue in that situation for two years; at the expiration of that term he examined their several contents, but no saltpetre had been generated in any one of them, though saline shoots had been formed on the walls of the place in which they stood. He afterwards mixed these same substances with animal matters, and after they had stood a proper time, they all yielded him saltpetre.

Saltpetre, it is granted, cannot be produced without air; but a simple exposure to the air of the materials in which it is most generally found, does not seem to be sufficient for the purpose. Air is necessary for the commencing and continuing of that intestine motion of the parts of vegetable and animal substances, which is called putrefaction; and I do not know whether the same may not be said of some minerals: hence, perhaps, it may not be a proposition far from the truth, if we should say, that saltpetre is never produced in substances which have not undergone a putrefactive fermentation. Thus Lemery got saltpetre as soon as he mixed with his earths animal substances, which ever tend to putrefaction. Fresh blood contains no saltpetre, but Kunckel extracted a large quantity from putrefied blood. Fresh urine yields no saltpetre, but putrefied urine yields it in great

abundance, as may be gathered from the patent before mentioned, by which it was ordered to be saved for the making of saltpetre. Quicklime does not contain a particle of saltpetre; a mixture of fresh urine and quicklime, if examined soon after it is made, will not yield any; but after being suffered to putrefy for six or seven months, very good saltpetre may be extracted from it. All the common processes for making saltpetre imply the putrefaction of the materials. Now if it be allowed that saltpetre is never produced without some kind and degree of putrefaction, it may deserve to be enquired, whether in its mode of generation it has not some relation to two other substances universally produced by putrefaction; I mean fixed air and volatile alkali. Many conjectures, not sufficiently warranted by experiment to be laid before the reader, present themselves on this head: one experiment, however, I will mention, especially as it is generally adduced by chemical writers in support of their theories concerning the origin and nature of the acid of saltpetre. When saltpetre and charcoal in powder are thrown together upon a fire, or any red-hot substance, the saltpetre is suddenly exploded, with a noise which is usually called *detonation*; much air is set at liberty; there arises very copious condensable fume, and there remains, when the detonation is finished, a fixed alkali; that is, there remains one of the constituent parts of saltpetre; the other part, namely, the acid, is dispersed with the fume. This considerable fume has been collected, and it is said to contain nothing but water, mixed accidentally with a little fixed alkali, which is supposed to have proceeded from the alkaline basis of the nitre. The liquor, thus collected, is called the *chylus* of nitre. I have frequently collected this liquor, and always found that it abounded with volatile alkali. This volatile alkali may be rendered visible in a concrete form,

by distilling the clyffus with a gentle heat. Is the nitrous acid formed from an union of fixed air with volatile alkali by means of putrefaction? What is fixed air, and what

is volatile alkali, and how are they produced, are questions which want an explanation just as much as what is the acid of saltpetre, and how is it produced?

A VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF NAVIGATION.

IN SEVERAL ESSAYS.

[*Continued from Page 272.*]

ESSAY III.—*Of the Navigation of the Middle Ages, and of the Discovery of the Mariner's Compass.*

AS long as the Roman empire continued in splendor, it supported what it had found of navigation, but added little or nothing to it, that people being altogether intent upon making new conquests, and finding still more work than they were able to compass upon dry land, without venturing far out at sea. But when the barbarous nations began to dismember that monarchy, this art instead of improving, doubtless declined, as did all others. The first of these barbarians were the Goths and Vandals, of whom no great actions appear on the sea, their farthest expeditions on this element being in the Mediterranean, betwixt Italy and Africa, Spain and the Islands, where nothing occurs worth mentioning. The Saracens were next to them as to order of time, though much superior in naval power, yet contained within the same bounds, and consequently did nothing more memorable. After the Saracens may be reckoned the Normans, who for several years infested the coasts of Britain and France with their fleets, from Norway, till having settled themselves in Normandy, they ran out plundering all the coasts of Spain, and entering the Straits conquered a great part of the kingdom of Naples, and the whole island of Sicily. Still these, tho' they undertook longer voyages, were but coasters, and satisfied with

what they found, did not endeavour to add any thing to the art of navigation, especially for that they were as then but rude and barbarous, war and rapine being their only profession. Other nations famous at sea were the Genoese and Venetians, betwixt whom there were bloody wars for several years; and the latter, till the Portuguese discovered the way by sea to the East-Indies, had all the trade of those parts in their own hands, either brought up the Red Sea into Egypt, or by caravans to the sea-port towns of Asia. We might here mention the expeditions of English, French, Danes, Dutch, and other nations, but should find nothing new in them all. They all in their turns were powerful at sea, they all ventured sometimes far from home, either to rob, conquer, or trade, but all in the same manner creeping along the shores, without daring to venture far out to sea, having no guides out of sight of land but the stars, which in cloudy nights must fail them. It is therefore time to leave these blind sailors, and come to the magnet or load stone, and to the compass or magnetical needle, which has opened ways in the unknown ocean, and made them as plain and easy in the blackest night as in the brightest day. To come then to the point.

The loadstone, or magnet, so called from the Latin word *magnes*, had this name given it because found in the country of Magnesia, which is a part of Lydia in Asia; or because the Magnesians first discovered its

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virtue of attracting iron: for both these reasons are given by the learned Bochartus Geogr. Sacr. p. 717. What other virtues and qualities it has, does not belong to this place. But it is certain the magnet has two poles answering to the two poles of the world, and to which they naturally incline (if nothing obstructs) to lie parallel. This property is not confined to itself, but communicative, as daily experience shews us in the nautical needles, which by the touch of this stone partake so much of its nature, that the point so touched, unless otherwise hindered, will always look towards the north pole. Let the learned naturalist plunge himself into the inscrutable abyss of nature to find out reasons for this sympathy; it shall suffice here to show the benefits and advantages navigation, and in it mankind, has reaped by the discovery of this most wonderful secret. The Magnesians, as was said above, were counted the first discoverers of the loadstone's virtue of attracting iron; but this greater virtue of pointing out the north pole, was never found till about the year 1300, if we will believe all the best modern enquirers into antiquity, who upon diligent search unanimously agree they cannot find the least ground to believe it was known before, rather than give credit to some few writers, who rather suppose such a thing to have been used by the Phenicians, than pretend to prove it, having nothing but their own fancies, raised upon weak and groundless surmises, to build upon. The great advocate I find for this opinion in Bochart. Geog. Sac. p. 716. and in Purchas's Pilgrims, p. 26. is Fuller in his Miscellanies, l. 4. c. 19. yet neither of them mentions any proof or strong argument he brings to corroborate his opinion, and therefore they both with reason reject him. These two authors, and Pancirol. l. 2. tit. 11, do not forget the verse often urged out of Plautus in Mercat.

Hic secundus ventus nunc est, cape modo verforiam.

Which Verforia some will have to be the compass. But there is nothing solid in this argument, it is only catching at straws, when all history and practice of former ages make against it. History, because it could not but have made some mention of a thing so universally useful and necessary; and practice, because it is well known no such voyages were then performed, as are now daily by the help of the compass. It has sufficiently been proved before, that in all former ages they were but coasters, scarce daring to venture out of sight of land; that if out at night they had no other rule to go by but the stars: and what is still more, it is manifest they scarce ventured at all to sea in the winter months. That this is so, appears by Vegetius lib. 4. where speaking of the months, he says, the seas are shut from the third of the Ides of November, to the sixth of the Ides of March, and from that time till the Ides of May it is dangerous venturing to sea. Thus much may suffice to show the compass was not known to antiquity, let us see when it first appeared in the world.

Its ancient use being rejected by general consent, there have still been some who have endeavoured to rob the discoverer of this honour: among them Goropius, quoted by Morisotus, will have this invention attributed to the Cimbrians, Teutonicks or Germans, for this weak reason, because the names of the 32 winds about it are Teutonical, and used by almost all Europeans. Others will not allow this to be the product of any part of Europe, and therefore go as far as China for it, alledging that M. Paulus Venetus brought it from thence about the year 1260: but this is asserted without any the least authority, only because Paulus Venetus travelled into China, and when afterwards the Portuguese came thither, they

found the use of the needle common among all those eastern nations, which they affirmed they had enjoyed for many ages. Not to dwell upon groundless suppositions, the general consent of the best authors on this subject is, that the magnetical needle or compass was first found out in Europe by one John Gioia, whom others call Flavio Gioia, of the city of Amalfi, on the coast of that part of the kingdom of Naples called Terra di Lavoro. This happened about the year of our Lord 1300, and though the thing be of such stupendous advantage to the world, yet it did not prove so greatly profitable to the first finder, whose bare name is all that remains to posterity, without the least knowledge of his profession, or after what manner he made this wonderful discovery. So wonderful that it seems to contradict the opinion of Solomon, who so many ages since said there was nothing new under the sun; whereas this certainly appears, though so long after him, to be altogether new, and never so much as thought of before, which cannot so plainly be made out of any other of those we look upon as modern inventions or improvements. For to instance in a few things, we find the use of fireships among the Tyrians in the time of Alexander the great, as was mentioned before out of Curtius, lib. 4. and therefore not repeated here. Our sea-charts, on which later times have so much valued themselves, are of such ancient date, that we cannot find their original; yet Morisotus p. 12. says that Eolus gave Ulysses a sea-chart drawn on a ram's skin, that is, a parchment. Again, p. 14. the same author out of Trogus observes, that Democedes the Cratonian, employed by Darius Hytaspes to view the coasts of Greece, sent him charts of them all, with the ports, roads and strongholds exactly marked down. Then p. 215. he shows out of Elianus and Aristophanes, that there were maps

of the world in Socrates' time. This he says was about the 80th Olympiad, and then quotes Strabo, who from Eratosthenes affirms, Anaximander the Milesian was the first that made geographical tables about the 50th Olympiad. Sheathing of ships is a thing in appearance so absolutely new, that scarce any will doubt to assert it altogether a modern invention; yet how vain this notion is, will soon appear in two instances. Leo Baptista Alberti in his book of architecture, lib. 5. cap. 12. has these words. But Trajan's ship weighed out of the lake of Riccia at this time, while I was compiling this work, where it had lain sunk and neglected for above 1300 years; I observed that the pine and cypress of it had lasted most remarkably. On the outside it was built with double planks, daubed over with Greek pitch, caulked with linen rags, and over all a sheet of lead fastened on with little copper nails. Raphael Volaterranus in his geography says, this ship was weighed by the order of Cardinal Prospero Colonna. Here we have caulking and sheathing together above 1600 years ago; for I suppose no man can doubt that the sheet of lead nailed over the outside with copper nails was sheathing, and that in great perfection, the copper nails being used rather than iron, which when once rusted in the water with the working of the ship, soon lose their hold and drop out. The other instance we find in Purchas's Pilgrims, vol. 1. lib. 4. in Captain Saris's voyage to the court of Japan, p. 371, where the captain giving an account of his voyage says, that rowing betwixt Firando and Fuccate, about eight or ten leagues on this side Xerimaseque, he found a great town where there lay in a dock a junk of 800 or 1000 ton burden, sheathed all with iron. This was in the year 1613, about which time the English came first acquainted with Japan; and it is evident that nation had not learned the way of sheathing of them,

or the Portuguese, who were there before, but were themselves ignorant of the art of sheathing.

Now to return to the magnetical needle, or sea-compass; its discoverer, as has been said, appears to be Flavius, or John Gioia of Amalfi, and the time of its discovery about the year 1300. The reason of its tending to or pointing out the north, is what many natural philosophers have in vain laboured to find; and all their study has brought them only to be sensible of the imperfection of human knowledge, which when plunged into the enquiry after the secrets of nature, finds no other way to come off but by calling them occult qualities, which is no other than owning our ignorance, and granting they are things altogether unknown to us. Yet these are not all the wonders of this magnetic virtue. The variation of it is another as inscrutable a secret. This variation is when the needle does not point out the true pole, but inclines more or less either to the east or west; and is not certain, but differs according to places, yet holding always the same in the same place, and is found by observing the sun or stars. The cause of this variation some philosophers ascribe to magnetical mountains, some to the pole itself, some to the heavens,

and some to a magnetical power even beyond the heavens; but these are all blind guesses, and fond ostentations of learning without any thing in them to convince ones reason. There is nothing of it certain but the variation itself. Nor is this variation alone, there is a variation of the variation; a subject to be handled by none but such as have made it a peculiar study. But let us leave these mysteries, and come to the historical part, as the principal scope of this discourse; where we shall find, that though the use of the needle was so long since found out, yet either through its being kept private by some few persons at first as a secret of great value, or through the dulness of sailors, at first not comprehending this wonderful phenomena; or through fear of venturing too far out from the known shores; or lastly, out of a conceit that there could not be more habitable worlds to discover: whether for these, or any other cause, we do not find any considerable advantage made of this wonderful discovery for above an age after it: nay, what is more, it does not appear how the world received it, who first used it upon the sea, and how it spread abroad into other parts.

[*To be continued.*]

AN ILLUSTRATION OF SOME ANCIENT SEA-CHARTS IN THE LIBRARY OF ST. MARK, AT VENICE.

BY SIG. FORMALIONE.

(*Concluded from Page 262.*)

THE hydrographical chart of Andrew Bianchi represents only the coasts of Africa, washed by the the Atlantic, as far as Cape Bojador, which is in a parallel with the Canary Islands. In this chart, by mistake, Bianchi wrote Non, instead of Bojador, a mistake by him corrected in the general charts. Cape Nun in this is Cape Non, under

Agilon. Near this cape is marked a river, whose mouth seems to form an ample river, and sufficiently capacious to receive vessels; it is called Citarlis. It seems to descend from the most internal parts of Africa, and branching out, forms an arm which runs towards the north into the ocean, with the name of Main.

The sea coast, which extends betwixt

twixt these two rivers, is of an extent corresponding with the space of ground between Cape Bojador and the mouth of the river Sus, where is the city and port of Guartagassem, or Santa Cruz. The name of Agilon, which we read a little below that of the river Main, does not admit of an equivocal: this is Cape Agulon, on the confines of the kingdom of Morocco, situated seventy miles, or thereabouts, above Cape Nun, as is clearly evident in this ancient chart.

In vain I laboured to find out all the other places marked out on the coast from the above named Citarlis, as far as Main, Plazie, Cabosin, Abermil, Anfulin, Ufin, Mercusi, Samoin, and Alguzin. Out of all these names, the only one I will attempt to guess at, is that of Cabosin, which from its situation appears to me to be Cabinho, a small promontory to the north-east of Cape Bojador; but I cannot positively say whether it is that situated a little above the banks of Cape Bojador, or another more to the north of the same name, noticed by d'Anville, to the N. E. by E. of that of Roquete.

In order to discover the correspondence of these old names with those of the moderns, I have made numberless researches, in the course of which I have fully comprehended the fruitless issue of such tedious and tiresome erudition. The Africa of Livius Sanudus was the only work on which I could place the smallest reliance. Few have been able to distinguish the transcendent merit of this writer, who flourished about the beginning of the 16th century, not less famous for the nobility of his family, than for his extensive knowledge. The study of mathematics was the delight of his youth, a science instinctively valued by souls capable of feeling a love for the force of truth, and doing it that homage so justly its due.

In that time the Cape of Good Hope had already been doubled. The discovery of the Indies, and of

a new world, had been for some years an object of common curiosity. Livius Sanudus was hurried away with the idea, and feeling in himself all the powers of man, immediately set about collecting the most exact information respecting the then new discoveries; and with these materials composed a globe, on which was represented all the known parts of the world, and as such he may be considered as the reformer of the ancient geography. Never to be forgotten is the loss sustained by the world in the privation of this great and truly memorable work. The only remains of his productions are twelve plates of Africa, with a description of this part of the world, which was composed by him, and which was not published till after his death. A single glance of the eye is sufficient to convince you that the author of this work is a geometrician; order, method, and precision, so uncommon in those days, blaze out in every part of the work. I observed that the peninsula of Africa is so well expressed and described in his charts, that I could almost venture to affirm, that there has been little or no change made by the geographers who succeeded him. I could not help admiring above all, the course of the Senegal and Gambia, even to the smallest distance, which proves them to have been perfectly well known long before the arrival of the French, who wished for the credit of the discovery. If I am not mistaken, the voyages of Cadamosto, a noble Venetian, were of great assistance to them in their enterprise.

Here I wish to make one observation, that the modern geographers, in delineating all Africa, have very few lights or foundation more than the ancients, but particularly Sanudus. For except some astronomical observations made by geographers and experienced navigators, it must be confessed, that the whole of the rest has been drawn by caprice, and merely the effect of guess-work. Cadamosto and Brue had

failed

failed up the river Senegal, but neither the one nor the other had time or power to measure that immense river. The Frenchman, however, returned home with a chart, describing the course of the river Senegal, and Cadamosto contented himself with writing an account of it: but stripping the first of imposture, the Senegal itself is not yet known. The same may indeed be said of almost all the remaining parts of Africa; and what an indulgent piece of concession it would be to say, that all the coast of this quarter of the globe was barely known. With respect to the internal parts, not even that tract of country which lies between Mount Atlas and the sea is known, though so near to Europe.

It appears to me, that Livius Sannidius has followed the steps of Giovanni Leone. The full and minute description which he gives of Barbary and Numidia in his work and in his tables, corresponds with the relation of the above African. I have also compared the eastern coast of the kingdom of Morocco, and Numidia on the ocean, from Cape Bojador to the passage of Suze, and have found it little different from the map of Bianchi.

The river which comes down to Cape Bojador, alias Buzedon, is called *Aridus Fluvius* (the Dry River). The name of Citarlis is not marked down in any one place. This term of Dry River appears to me to take its rise rather from its quality, than as its proper name. Here are seen placed upon it, in the chart of Sannidius, the four castles of Ifren, which, according to Leo, are situated directly on a river, which in the winter is full, and in summer dry. However, it has no name which corresponds in the smallest degree with that of Main, which I have already declared to be in the place of that of Suze.

It is absurd to attempt to conceal the false opinions which the ancients had respecting geography, and

the ridiculous principles on which they reasoned. Such were the opinions that the Nile had two sources, one to the east, in the mountains of the moon, and the other to the west, at the foot of Mount Atlas: and another idea, that there were certain bottomless gulphs of water on the globe, here and there dispersed, from which all rivers originated.

The opinion that the Nile took its rise in Mount Atlas to the east, originated with the ancients; Cæsar was also of the same sentiments. The other was derived from principles, which it was hereby not to admit, and which the credulous simplicity of those good people held for infallible. The fountains of that gulph, which were opened for the production of the deluge, in conjunction with the cateracts from the clouds, were supposed to be the origin of all rivers, more particularly of those which distributed to the sea an ample portion of water. This could not be the case with the river of Ifren, nor that of Suze. But the navigators were totally unacquainted with any thing but the mouths of the rivers; and those which empty themselves into the ocean, have most extensive mouths indeed. They might, therefore, probably imagine that they came from a considerable distance; and adding every thing to their erroneous system, naturally placed their source in one of the fountains of the gulph.

The name of Citarlis is a corruption of the ancient Cirtha, a city famous in the old geography, and which is supposed to be the same as that known by the modern name of Constantine. The leap from one to the other must be allowed to be considerable, but the ancients sometimes took great flights.

I shall not stop here to compare, name by name, of all the different places marked down in this chart. I will spare the reader the painful task; and if he has a mind to examine at his leisure the survey, he may do it by comparing it with the
chart

chart of M. D'Anville. Other more important investigations remain to be made, and call for all our closest attention.

The situation of the Canary Islands is most imperfectly described, and they are positively wrong placed. Their form is inaccurate, as also that of Madeira and Porto Santo. What an enormous difference! The island of Cadiz, and all the coast of Spain, is so accurately described, that not a rock or shoal is missing, and yet these islands, scattered in the ocean, are hardly to be known again. But it is easy to conceive that the Venetians, who frequented the ports of Spain and Portugal, should have a perfect knowledge of them; and for the same reason, must have had barely a slight idea of such places as they had casually visited, when driven by stresses of weather.

That chain of small islands, which run to the north of the Canaries, would naturally represent the Azores, notwithstanding their names bear little or no allusion to them. Amongst the rest is observable an island, which bears the name of Brasil; but even at this time we remark the Morro de Brasil in the Azores, as may be seen in the maps of D'Anville. In another chart, as I shall in another place remark, to the east of Ireland there is another island marked down, of the name of Berzil, which should not be confounded with this. The repetition of this name, with so little alteration, gives me some faint idea of the uncertainty the ancients were in respecting the existence and situation of a country, whether it was an island or a continent, which was known by the name of Brasil.

The island of Corvo is here called Corbo Marinos, and that of Flores, Corrios. It does not appear to have retained its own name, viz. that of Saint George, which here we read in the Venetian dialect, *Isola di San Zorzi*. That which bears the name of Brasil, is undoubtedly Tercera; but I am doubtful with which of the remaining three, viz. *Graziosa*, *Fayal*,

and *Pico*, correspond. Those of St. Michael and St. Mary correspond with *Loto* and *Chapela* in this chart. If there was extant any true and exact history of the Azores and of their discovery, this change of names would be easily elucidated; but this is just what is wanting.

But the most conspicuous of all, and the most worthy of attention, is that island situated towards the west, entitled d'Antillia. Its great extent, the harbours, and rivers, with which it is surrounded on every side, evidently shew, that in those times they had knowledge of it, and that some navigator, previous to Columbus, had landed there. The glory to Columbus, however, has not been lessened, inasmuch as he had the ability to find a land some time lost, and to open a passage to the opposite hemisphere.

The origin of the name d'Antillia is unknown; and it would be too daring to hazard an opinion that it signified, as much as to say, that that island was placed before the continent. When, and by whom, it was originally discovered, we are at present ignorant of; but this we know, that it was known long before the voyages of Columbus, and, for any thing which appears to the contrary, at least a century.

My opinion on this head is widely different from the able panegyrists of Columbus, whose talents will ever entitle them to the highest respect in the republic of letters, to which they do honour: I speak of a work lately given to the public, "The historical Eulogium of Christopher Columbus," in which I will freely declare, the authors have not in every part adhered to the truth, and I will engage to prove it incontestably. The existence of the Antilles was, according to them, pointed out to Columbus by *Novelles* and the adventures of seamen who traded in the seas of the Azores islands and Madeira; the which, whether in part, or wholly fabulous, were nevertheless by him set down as signs and tokens,

tokens, and proved the food of all his hopes. The Adventures and Novels are as follow :

"Vincent Martin, pilot to the king of Portugal, related to Christopher, that finding himself one day 450 leagues to the west of Cape St. Vincent, he picked up a piece of wood, curiously carved without the help of any iron tool; from this circumstance, and the wind having blown for some days from the west, he concluded that the said piece of wood must have come from some islands which lay in that direction. His brother-in-law, Pietro Correa, informed him of his having seen a similar piece of wood in the island of Porto Santo, well carved, and brought thither by the winds, and which had also driven ashore certain large canes, unknown in that island, or even in Europe, which from one joint to the other contained nine charaffs of water (about nine pints). The inhabitants of the Azores islands also related, that during the blowing of the west winds, the sea generally brought ashore pines and fir trees on the coast of Graziosa and Fayal, there being no such trees on the islands. Besides, on the island of Fiori, one of the Azores, the sea had thrown up two human bodies, with large heads, and of an aspect very different from that of the Europeans. Another time there had been discovered, in the neighbourhood of those islands, certain boats covered, which had been driven there by the winds. Antonio Leme, who was married in the island of Madeira, reported, that having on a certain time stretched out a considerable way to the west with a pink, he had seen three islands. One of the said island of Madeira had come, in the year 1484, to Portugal, to ask of the king a vessel for the purpose of discovering a certain land, which had been seen every year, and always in the same form. By these signs and marks in the sea-charts and globes, on which were placed certain islands in those situations, particularly that

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known by the name of Antilla, which was placed 200 leagues to the west of the Canaries and the Azores. The Portuguese took it for the island of the Seven Cities, peopled, according to their tradition, in 714, about the time of the invasion of the Moors, concerning which many stories are related. One Diego da Tiena also went in search of this island, whose pilot, named Velasco, related to Christopher an account of his navigation, and the reasons they had for believing that there was a certain land to the westward, where they did not dare to stretch to, for fear of the approach of the winter. This was likewise confirmed by a mariner, who, in a voyage which he had made to Ireland, was said to have seen the aforesaid land, supposed by him to be a part of Tartary, which looked towards the west. This must have been that which is at present called the land of Bacalos; but the bad weather did not admit of our approach to it. Pietro Velasco affirmed, that in making the same voyage he had so far stretched to the north-west, that he had seen land to the west of Ireland. Vincent Diaz, a Portuguese pilot, coming from Guinea, after having passed the island of Madeira, thought he had seen to the westward real land. He communicated the secret to a merchant of Genoa, who armed a vessel to go on discovery of it, after having previously demanded permission of the king of Portugal.—Diaz, then in company with the said merchant, named Luca de Cazana, took his departure. Three or four times they went in search of the island, making from 120 to 130 leagues, without discovering any thing. Gasper and Michael di Corthreal, two sons of the pilot, who had discovered Terzera, perished in the same enterprize, &c."

But Columbus was not even born when the existence of the Antilles was made public throughout Europe, since we here see it clearly pointed out in the chart of

Y y

Biancha,

Biancha, in the year 1436; a sure and certain sign that previous to that period, in some way or other, this discovery had been made: this appears still more clear in a letter of Paolo Toscanelli, which was written in 1474, to Fernando Martenez, of Lisbon, who had consulted him on the probability of finding the Indies. After having discussed at great length the ideas communicated by Marco Sanlo, from which he had composed a chart, he thus expresses himself—"And of the island of the Antilles, of which you have some knowledge, and what you call the island of the Seven Cities, from thence to the island of Apango is 2500 miles." The existence of the Antilles was therefore known by others, as well as the mariners who informed Columbus; and other

navigators had endeavoured to discover it, but in vain.

An opinion that the Spaniards had fled thither, when the Moors conquered Spain, was probably the motive that engaged many to undertake the discovery, as Vevaldi Doria did, in the beginning of the fourteenth century, who perished in the attempt. In short, it cannot be denied that the ancients had some confused ideas of the new world.

I observed in the ancient charts two islands laid down, west of Ireland, called Maida and Verte; these are also laid down in the charts of Bianco, and are called there Ventura and Berzil. The existence of these isles is not proved, and I have reason to think they must mean the Azores.

HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF ENGLISH MONEY.

[Concluded from Page 280.]

JAMES II. The money of this reign, as appears by indenture the first year, was for gold twenty-two carraets fine, and two carraets alloy, to be coined into forty-four pounds ten shillings by tale; and silver of the old standard into three pounds two shillings by tale, which standard both for gold and silver hath continued ever since; so that the same pound of gold, which in 18 Edward III. 1344, was worth 13, 14, or 15*l.* in silver, is risen by degrees to go for 44*l.* 10*s.* and the gold not quite so fine neither. But if a penny then was worth our three-pence, and 20*s.* worth our 60*s.* then gold and silver have kept pretty near the same proportion to each other; for three times 15*l.* make 45*l.* which is but 10*s.* more than a pound of gold now goes at. Of gold were coined guineas, half guineas, and larger pieces, well struck, and exhibiting his majesty's head laureat, IACOBUS. II. DEI. GRATIA. Reverse, the arms single in separate

shields, with the scepters, but nothing in the center; some have the elephant under the king's head, being of the African gold. The five pound piece is like the guinea, but has DECVS. &c. upon the rim.

The current silver monies of this king are of the years 1685, 86, 87, and 88, in England, and of 1689, 90, and 91, in Ireland, the crown has the head laureat, IACOBVS. II. DEI. GRATIA. Reverse, the arms in four separate shields crowned, MAG. BR. FRA. HIB. REX. 1688. upon the rim DECVS. ET. TVTAMEN, &c. the half crown the same, and the shilling and sixpence the like (except the inscription upon the rim) very well performed. The lesser pieces, from the groat to the penny, have as many initial letters of his name crowned, as they contain pence, but the same inscription to a letter as the crown piece. The tin farthing and half-penny have the king's head, IACOBVS. SECVNDVS. Reverse Britannia, BRITANNIA.

NIA. upon the rim, 1685. NVMMO-
RVM. FAMVLS. the plantation half-
penny, of the same metal, hath the
king on horseback, IACOBVS. II.
D. G. MAG. BRI. FRAN. ET. HIB.
REX. Reverse, the arms in four
separate shields crowned, and linked
together, VAL. 24. PART. REAL.
HISPAN. His Irish half-penny was
of copper, of the like standard of
Charles the Second's, by patent,
exhibiting his head laureat, inscribed
IACOBVS. II. DEI. GRATIA. Re-
verse, a crowned harp, MAG. BRI.
FRA. ET. HIB. REX. 1686. There
were none of tin in Ireland, or
copper in England.

Soon after king James landed in
Ireland, which was in March 1688-9,
he was reduced to so great scarcity
of money, that he was forced to
melt old brass guns, and utensils of
the most refuse metal to coin into
money for the subsistence of his
army, which was made current as
sterling silver, by proclamation the
18th of June, 1689, of this metal,
which was worth but three-pence
or a groat a pound when coined,
was five pounds by tale, and upon
recoining the half crown, as much
more. Of this money, in June
1689, were coined sixpences only,
in the month following shillings,
and in August half-crowns, some-
what bigger than an English half-
penny, the shilling broader, but
not so thick as a farthing, and six-
pence in proportion, whereof there
was said to be coined, between June
1689, and July 1690, 1,100,000*l.* as
Mr. Story in his history of the wars
of Ireland sets it down; but bishop
king says only 965,375*l.* These
pieces were all alike, inscribed
round the king's head laureat, IACOBVS. II. DEI. GRATIA. Reverse,
MAG. BR. FRA. ET. HIB. REX. a
crown and two scepters, with the
year 1689 or 90; and the value vi.
xx. or xxx. above, and the month
below the crown, which is placed
between the initial letters IR. but
there being no circulation to bring
this back into the treasury, they

were called in by proclamation, and
the half-crown, which before was
stamped with a face, was then stamp-
ed with the figure of the king on
horseback, and then delivered back
to those that brought them in as
crowns; and the smaller pieces
were melted down and recoined
under the same denominations,
though with less metal. This pro-
clamation was supposed to begin
April 1690, for there is both the
great half-crown, that, if carried in
upon the proclamation, would have
been a crown, and another of the
same month that is not half so big;
and so likewise the shillings for
April of both sizes, and the larger
are very rarely met with after that
date. These new crown pieces had
the king on horseback, IAC. II.
DEI. GRA. MAG. BRI. FRA. ET. HIB.
REX. Reverse, a crown in the
midst of four separate shields crown-
ed, CHRISTO. VICTORE. TRIVM-
PHO. ANO. DOM. 1690.

It is plainly to be discerned, upon
many of these crown pieces, that
they were double stamped, there
appearing oftentimes upon the same
piece two dates, 1689, which was
when they were coined for half-
crowns; and 1690, when they com-
menced crowns; as one I have, the
sides whereof being reversed in the
second coinage, there remains part
of the crown and scepters, and
some of the figures under the horse,
and the first inscription almost en-
tire, MAG. BR. R. REX. RA. ET. HIB.
REX. 1689. and reverse, ORVS. II.
DEI. GRATIA. CHRIS. Upon others
are the scepters and shields inter-
mixed, and in general the different
legends and impression so con-
founded, that those which are en-
tirely new (of which there are of
copper and brass) are more rare to
be found.

Before king James left Ireland,
even brass and copper failed; so
that a proclamation was preparing
for the currency of pewter money,
but king William passing the Boyne,
hindered the publishing of it; ne-
vertheless

vertheless, some few were actually coined, and found in the treasury at Dublin; the fashion, size, and inscription of which, were the same with the brass crown, with this legend added on the rim, MELIORIS. TESSERA. FATI. ANNO. REGNI. SEXTI. These are so very rare, says an ingenious author, there being but few coined; that I never heard of any, nor met with any person that saw any, but these few that accidentally fell into my hands. The same year, as another author conjectures, were coined pennies of lead, having behind the king's head *id.* round it, JACOBVS. II. DEI. GRATIA. Reverse, MAG. BR. FRA. ET. HIB. REX. with a crowned harp between 60 and 90; the half-penny of the same, but without the value set upon it. After king James left Ireland, was another sort of brass money coined at Limerick, called Hybernias, with JACOBVS. II. DEI. GRATIA. Reverse, Ireland represented by a woman with her left hand leaning upon a harp, and in her right hand holding a cross HIBERNIA. 1691.

The Scotch coins of this reign, were the new ten shilling piece, having 10 under his head, laureat; looking the contrary way from the English money; as it is observed of all the monies coined in that kingdom since the union, the king's head always is facing the contrary way from the money coined at the same time in England, JACOBVS. II. DEI. GRATIA. Reverse, St. Andrew's cross, the thistle, rose, fleur-de-lis, and harp, at the points, and the arms of the four kingdoms in as many shields, crowned in the quarters, MAG. BR. FRA. ET. HIB.

1687. William and Mary. Their current silver monies are from a crown to a penny. The crown and half-crown have both their majesties heads, looking the contrary way, that of the king laureat, GVLIELMVS. ET. MARIA. DEI. GRATIA. Reverse, the four shields of arms

crowned, the arms of Orange in the center, the date of the year about it, and w. m. interlinked in the quarters, MAG. BR. FR. ET. HI. REX. ET. REGINA. with DECVS. &c. upon the edge. Another sort hath the arms in a single shield crowned, 1689, and France is put in the last quarter of the arms. Another the arms of France and England quarterly, in the first and fourth quarters. The shilling is very neat, like the crown, with w. m. interlinked in the quarters. The lesser pieces, from the groat to the penny, are distinguished by the figures 1, 2, 3, and 4; crowned. The half-penny and farthing have their majesties heads, with GVLIELMVS. ET. MARIA. Reverse, BRITANNIA. and under it the date; likewise the tin half-penny and farthing like the copper one, and upon the rim, NVMMORVM. FAMVLVS. 1690. but this metal being very frequently counterfeited in their last year, half-pennies and farthings were again coined of copper. Their Irish half-penny is of copper, GVLIELMVS. ET. MARIA. DEI. GRATIA. Reverse, MAG. BR. FR. ET. HIB. REX. ET. REGINA, 1693, a crowned harp.

The money of king William after the death of queen Mary differed, in that they had the single head, GVLIELMVS. III. DEI. GRATIA; reverse, MAG. BR. FRA. ET. HIB. REX. 1696. Of this money I have a groat 1702, though the king died in January, 1701-2. It is very much to the honour of this king, that he removed the greatest abuse in the money that was ever known in England, at a time of the greatest danger and expence, with very little grievance to the people, by recoin-ing the money, that had been clipped to that degree, that a half-crown would scarce weigh a shilling. For this purpose, besides the mint in the Tower, where six presses were wrought, there were other mints erected in the most populous and trading cities, viz. York, (where alone was coined 312,520*l.*) Chester, Norwich,

Norwich, Bristol, and Exeter, to prevent the inconveniencies that might happen to trade in the mean time; and from the year 1691, to the 14th of August, 1697, there was no less than eight millions four hundred thousand pounds of this clipped and hammered money brought to the several mints in London and the country. The pieces coined at the aforesaid places, were marked with the initial letters of the cities, anno 1696, 1697, as *y*, or *y* for York, *c* Chester, &c. in other respects exactly as the London shilling; the smaller piece having the value expressed by figures on the reverse, as the former. There was also, in this thirteenth year, half-crowns, shillings, and six-pences, of Sir Carbery Price, or Sir Humphry Mackworth's mines in Wales, with the feathers betwixt the shields; likewise there were sixpences with the rose in the quarters, being from the mines in the west of England, which were coined for a trial, anno 1699, but would not answer, each shilling (as is reported) standing the proprietor in five groats.

The copper halfpence and farthings have the king's head laureat, *GVLIELMVS. TERTIVS.* and reverse, below *BRITANNIA*, the year. All that are genuine, says Mr. Thoresby, have the hand elevated, but there are others counterfeit, with the hand depressed, and with the years 1698 and 1699 at the side, not below *BRITANNIA*.

The gold money of this reign was the guinea and the half guinea, and larger pieces. The guinea with both their heads; reverse, the arms in a single shield crowned. Those of the king alone have the four shields crowned, scepters in the vacancies, and Orange in the center. One of the African gold has an elephant under the king's head. There are also very fair five pound pieces with the same difference. In this reign the guinea, which was first ordained to go at twenty shillings, and ten shillings the half guinea,

was current at thirty, and fifteen shillings; to be ascribed. says Mr. Lowndes, to the badness of the silver money, which was so exceeding counterfeited and clipped, that the common people would take guineas almost at any rate, rather than be troubled with the hazard and vexation of the silver money, as it was then current Scotch coins. Since the reign of Charles II. all the pieces that relate to the mark have been discontinued, and there have been coined only five, ten, twenty, and forty shilling pieces; at least none of them, says Mr. Thoresby, have come to my notice. The forty shilling piece has 40 under their majesties heads, *GVLIELMVS. ET. MARIA. DEI. GRATIA.* Reverse in a shield crowned, the arms of Scotland in the first and fourth quarters, France and England quarterly in the second, Ireland in the third, and Orange in the center, *MAG. BR. FR. HIB. REX. ET. REGINA. 1691.* upon the rim, *PROTEGIT. ET. ORNAT. ANNO. REGNI. TERTIO.* The ten shilling piece has 10 under their heads, reverse, &c. like the former; the five shilling piece has v below the heads; reverse, instead of arms, is *W. M.* in a cypher under a crown. The *ba-bee* hath their heads quite surrounded, with this legend, *GVLI. ET. MAR. D. G. MAG. BR. FR. ET. HIB. REX. ET. REGINA.* Reverse, the crowned thistle, *NEMO. ME. IMPVNE. LACES-SIT. 1692.* The Bothwell, instead of their heads, has a crowned cypher, (*W. M.*) *D. G. MAG. &c.* Reverse as the preceding. Of king William alone, the ten, twenty, and forty shilling pieces, have the number under the king's head laureat, inscribed, *GVLIELMVS. DEI. GRATIA.* and reverse, *MAG. BRIT. ET. HIB. REX.* Arms as before; upon the rim of the forty shilling piece, *PROTEGIT. ET. ORNAT. ANNO. REGNI. SEPTIMO.* The five shilling piece has 5 under the king's head, *GVLI. D. G. MAG. BR. FR. ET. HIB. REX.* Reverse, the branched thistle

thistle crowned, NEMO. &c. 1696. The very same on both sides the babe, but the thistle is single headed, as it is also upon the Bothwells, but they have his name at large.

Queen Anne. The monies of her reign are of gold, guineas, half guineas, and larger pieces; and of silver, from a crown to a penny; all of them exhibit her majesty's head, ANNA. DEI. GRATIA. Reverse, the four shields of arms crowned, and the cross of St. George radiant in the center, MAG. BRI. FR. ET. HIB. REG. the date. The gold money have the scepters added in the quarters, and the crown and half-crown DECVS. ET. TUTAMEN, &c. The lesser pieces, the figures 1, 2, 3, 4, denoting their value under a crown; besides these are six-pences, shillings, and half-crowns, with VICO. under the queen's head, being of the silver brought from thence; the six-pence, shilling, and half-crown of the Welsh silver, with the prince's device in the quarters, between the shields, 1704, ANNO. REGNI. TERTIO. and the like pieces with the rose and feathers interchangeably, in the quarters, called

the Quakers money, from some of that sect that were proprietors of the mines. The money coined after the union has the arms of England and Scotland impaled in the first and fourth shields, France in the second, and Ireland in the third. There was likewise half-pence and farthings of two different kinds, struck anno 1713 and 1714, of fine copper, but there were so very few of these coined, that they are preserved as great rarities; on one side is represented her majesty's head, ANNA. DEI. GRATIA. on the reverse Britannia, circumscribed BRITANNIA. 1713. the other 1714. has the date under Britannia.

Scotch coins are the ten shilling piece, 10 below the queen's head, ANNA. DEI. GRATIA. Reverse, the royal arms under a crown, MAG. BRIT. FR. ET. HIB. REGINA. 1705. The five shilling piece has 5 under the head, and reverse the crowned thistle, NEMO. ME. IMPYNE. LACESIT. 1706. The shilling coined upon the union 1707, in all respects like those of London mints, only £ for Edinburgh under her majesty's effigies.

GALLERY OF PORTRAITS.

NUMBER VI.

Abbé SIEYES, under the Character of
SCYROS.

IT is not surprising that a man, whose faculties have been preserved unworn, and who for thirty years has enriched his mind by useful study and philosophical conversation, who apprehends a subject strongly, considers it, fathoms it, views it on all sides, and then brings it out in all its strength,—it is not surprising that such a man should have a mob of admirers. The novelty of the exhibition is striking, and the explosion of a talent, which, long concealed, at length appears in all its splendour, arrests attention and extorts applause.

Scyros possesses every talent that

is pleasing to the bulk of readers. His style is nervous, his tone decisive, his assertions bold, his thoughts new, his opinions accommodated to the reigning taste. He takes advantage of the curiosity his subject excited; and he convinces readers, that were already desirous to be convinced. Full of admiration, it would be barbarous and unjust to arraign our first judgment; to examine, whether the style, that was so nervous, was equally clear; whether the tone, that was so decisive, kept pace with reason and truth; whether the assertions flowed from an heated imagination, or were but branches growing out of a regular and connected system; whether

whether the thoughts had solidity as well as splendour, truth as well as brilliancy, justice as well as force; whether the opinions were the result of reflection and conviction, or were the secret impulse of a personal interest, which disposes of our sentiments when we scarcely suspect it.

Scyros is inebriated with his first success, and is persuaded, that, when one is generally read, one is universally admired. Hence that profound esteem for himself, that looks with contempt upon every rival; hence that despotical tyranny over the sentiments of others, which forms so pleasant a contrast to the cause in which he is engaged; hence that arrogant assumption, which, it is true sometimes accompanies genuine ability, but which always causes mankind to repent of the eulogiums they bestowed upon an intellectual despot.

Scyros has that austerity of manners, which mature age requires in a profession, that does not pardon so much as juvenile errors. He has that ruggedness of character, that springs from a rustic education; he has that haughtiness, which arises from a new-acquired reputation. Nature, impartial in her distribution, has denied to Scyros the faculty of speaking. His voice is thin, his gesture insignificant, his expression slow, his conception difficult, his method unintelligible; he is incapable of ardent and animated language, and he prefers correctness of form to energy of diction.

Very respectable judges have pronounced, that the principal merit of Scyros has been, to publish indigested truths, which, in the month of January 1789, reached the extremity of Gallic daring. Scyros pretends, that all the pamphlets, which has since appeared, contain nothing but his thoughts, drawn into wire, and made feeble and unenergetic.

"Who shall decide when doctors disagree?"*

But I am half inclined to believe, or at least I must be permitted to suspect, that Scyros is a mere bubble, supported with popular opinion. After reading his declamations, one lends him genius, another force, a third eloquence, and a fourth intellectual intrepidity. Every one talks of this substance, half real, half imaginary. In all revolutions men want to hang up their opinions somewhere, and the multitude, who must have a leader, have made choice of Scyros. They have then doubled their veneration, in order to justify their exaggerated praise.

Scyros had given his name to the famous motion, by which the representatives of the people declared themselves the National Assembly. But in reality what shall we ascribe to him of this motion, which was on all sides revised, corrected, new cast, disfigured, softened, regenerated? It is good however, to have these points of rendezvous, at which the greater number may rally, without even comprehending what they intend or what they perform.

I know not whether it be, that men are a strange compound of heterogeneous materials; or whether, while we review them in this gallery, we examine them with too anatomical a scrutiny; but these great men of half a year's standing appear to us to fall extremely short of their premature reputation.

"Do we then deny to Scyros a strong understanding, a reasonable portion of ability, and decisive maxims and conclusions?" Certainly not: but, that we may not incur the guilt of deceiving posterity, we hold ourselves bound to add, that these brilliant adjuncts are not accompanied with that mental discretion, which is the first of all qualities in a true politician. Without

* Non nostrum inter vos tantas componere lites,

VIRGIL.

out it we play for kingdoms, doubts are nothing; we destroy without knowing how to rebuild; and we forget, that, to change the destiny of twenty-four millions of men, it is necessary, that we should have considered the subject with mature attention.

What has alarmed men of real discernment, is the spruce way, in which they have talked of making a constitution, and of giving a new movement to the political machine; as if it were an easy thing to harmonize the wishes of twelve hundred individuals; as if there were no doubt, that the provinces would assent to arrangements, a great number of which are in opposition to their instructions.

Scyros seems to understand neither his age nor his country. Nothing is more easy, than to point out abuses, and to declaim against the usurpation of an aristocracy. Nothing is more difficult, than to correct them, and so to distribute the powers of government, that the parts may balance each other. The people are deeply interested in the annihilation of despotism; but they are still more interested to guard against anarchy. But how shall we conceal, that the unequalled principles of our demagogues lead to that termination? Read with attention the pamphlets of Scyros, and you will agree, that his zeal partakes of enthusiasm, that he is more hardy than eloquent, and that his talents are better calculated for the tumult of a revolutionist than for the regularity of a legislator.

Abbé MAURY, under the Title of UMA.

IN an age sufficiently relaxed in its morals, we have however this degree of equity, we do not pardon a man the irregularity of his conduct in consideration of the greatness of his talents. Not a soul denies the oratorical powers of Uma, and not a soul applauds them. Lost in the

ignoble herd of slaves, he vegetates without glory, and has ceased even to have an enemy. The well-known panegyrist of the advantages of slavery, letters, philosophy and France alike disclaim him, and he finds no asylum but at the footstool of despotism.

When Mr. Lingut took in hand the cause of despotism, men saw nothing in him but an ingenious declaimer, who found his account in supporting a paradox, and placed his glory in opposing principles that every body believed. We forgave this literary insanity, we smiled at the ambition of a Levite, who struggled as he could to build himself a reputation. But, to employ one's pen by a secret compact in favour of machinations against the public liberty, to prop the tottering projects of despotism, and to veil them with the semblance of justice, what is this in reality but to prostitute the sacred flame of genius?

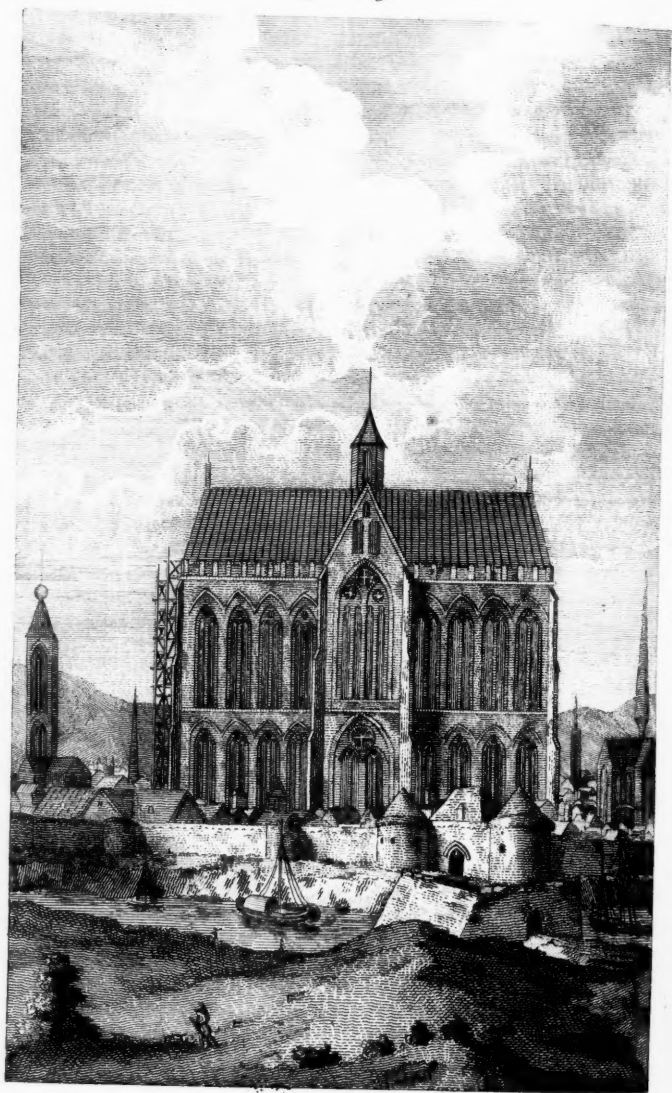
Such are the fruits of the immeasurable thirst of praise. Who would not imagine that fame is a good we may possess without alloy? Mean while the reverse of all this is the truth. The man that wishes to be talked of has ten detractors for one panegyrist; and the meanest of all his backbiters has it in his power to torment his vanity more severely, than all the praises of the loudest eulogist can compensate.

There is a sort of condition tolerated in society, that is to be regarded as a vicious excrescence. Such is the citizen of a free state, that contributes nothing to the public weal: such is a priest, who deserts the duties of the altar; such is the professional man, that neglects the business of his profession; such is the husbandman, that does not plough; and such the landed proprietor, who holds his estate only in trust for another. Uma is one of these men; he enjoys the revenues of an abbey without being

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CATHEDRAL OF BEAUVAIS.

Published as the Act directs 1 June 1793, by J. Good Bond Street.

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ing a regular clergyman.* It is still worse, when, to this character of the indolent usurper of one profession, a man unites incessant activity in the pursuits of baseness and intrigue; when he passes from one public office to another his venal pen. I do not mention these as things demonstrated; I only observe that certain names call up in the memory certain ideas.

Uma has not yet stood forward in the debates that have arisen in the National Assembly. He mines underground; and, though an orator of nature's forming, he is more at home in the intrigues of cabal, and prefers the labyrinth of the closet to the conspicuous scenes of a tumultuous assembly.

During the period that academies were the subject of conversation, Uma was scarcely heard of. He has little partiality for discourses in the air; he aspires to a more solid glory; he turns his time and his sentences into louis, and is not idle enough to trust to fame for the remuneration of his performances and his talents. He has scattered his seed in a penurious way, but he

has reaped a golden harvest. Your rustic wits know nothing of this secret; it is reserved for the calculating imaginations of the metropolis.

Uma is well satisfied with himself, with the court, the ministers, the state, the church, the academy. He recollects with less complacency the unpolished decisions of the public voice.

A resolute adherent of the aristocracy, he has declared himself in favour of the high partisans, and treads in the steps of Ludval, that Ludval, so celebrated for the tempest of his eloquence, who is at once the delight of the court, the hope of his corps, the prop of the whole order of magistracy.

Uma, less ambitious, would content himself with one third, that is, with the first head, of the glory of Ludval.

The National Assembly will unfold the virtues and the views, the qualities and the defects of our men of reputation. It will not be one of its least advantages, to enable the executive branch to chuse with discretion the delegates of its power.

ACCOUNT OF THE CATHEDRAL OF BEAVAIS.

WITH A VIEW OF THE SAME.

BEAVAIS is the capital of the Beavois; is about thirty miles north of Paris. It is remarkable for its great fair of cattle, and for its cathedral, the choir of which alone is finished, and is upwards of 125 feet in length. The French say, that to make a perfect Gothic cathedral, the facade of Rheims, the spire of Chartres, the nave of Amiens, and the choir of Beavais, should be united.

The following description of the cathedral is taken from a manuscript letter of a young man of taste and observation, written a few years

Vol. X.

ago. "The cathedral, the bishop's palace, and the church of the holy Virgin, form a very rich assemblage of Gothic grandeur. The external appearance of the cathedral is heavy, owing probably to its unfinished state, and to its wanting that noblest Gothic feature, a spire. Within, it unites the great beautiful in a high degree. It is of a stupendous height, and the arches are of the most beautiful Gothic form, highly pointed. The roof wants lightness, and has not enough of those fretted subdivisions that imitate the entanglement of a grove, where the smaller branches

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meet

* A regular clergyman is a monk; the priest, who takes orders merely with a view to public preaching, is distinguished by the epithet of secular,

meet at top." The bishopric of Beavais gave the title of Count to its possessor, in the old government of France. He was one of the six ecclesiastical peers of that kingdom.

Our engraving of this celebrated

structure is copied from a scarce etching of it, made by Chastillon, about the year 1630, which represents it with the scaffolding at that time intended for its completion.

DISSERTATION ON THE TARTARS.

Being the fifth Anniversary Discourse delivered to the Society Feb. 21, 1783.

From the Asiatic Researches.

[*Concluded from Page 286.*]

III. **H**AD the religious opinions and allegorical fables of the Hindus been actually borrowed from Scythia, travellers must have discovered in that country some ancient monuments of them, such as pieces of grotesque sculpture, images of the Gods and Avatars, and inscriptions on pillars or in caverns, analogous to those which remain in every part of the western peninsula, or to those which many of us have seen in Bahâr and at Banâras; but (except a few detached idols) the only great monuments of Tartarian antiquity are a line of ramparts on the west and east of the Caspian, ascribed indeed by ignorant Muselmans to Yâjûj and Mâjûj, or Gog and Magog, that is to the Scythians, but manifestly raised by a very different nation, in order to stop their predatory inroads through the passes of Caucasus. The Chinese wall was built or finished on a similar construction, and for a similar purpose, by an emperor who died only two hundred and ten years before the beginning of our era; and the other mounds were very probably constructed by the old Persians, though, like many works of unknown origin, they are given to Secander; not the Macedonian, but a more ancient hero, supposed by some to have been Jemshîd. It is related, that pyramids and tombs have been found in Tâtâristân, or western Scythia, and some remnants of

edifices in the lake Saïsan; that vestiges of a deserted city have been recently discovered by the Russians near the Caspian sea, and the Mountain of Eagles; and that golden ornaments and utensils, figures of elks and other quadrupeds in metal, weapons of various kinds, and even implements for mining, but made of copper instead of iron, have been dug up in the country of the Tshûdes; whence M. Bailly infers, with great reason, the high antiquity of that people: but the high antiquity of the Tartars, and their establishment in that country near four thousand years ago, no man disputes; we are enquiring into their ancient religion and philosophy, which neither ornaments of gold, nor tools of copper, will prove to have had an affinity with the religious rites and the sciences of India. The golden utensils might possibly have been fabricated by the Tartars themselves; but it is possible too that they were carried from Rome or from China, whence occasional embassies were sent to the kings of Eighûr. Towards the end of the tenth century, the Chinese emperor dispatched an ambassador to a prince named Erflân, which, in the Turkish of Constantinople, signifies a lion, who resided near the Golden Mountain, in the same station, perhaps, where the Romans had been received in the middle of the sixth century. The Chinese on his re-
turn

turn home reported the Eighuris to be a grave people, with fair complexions, diligent workmen, and ingenious artificers, not only in gold, silver, and iron, but in jasper and fine stones; and the Romans had before described their magnificent reception in a rich palace adorned with Chinese manufactures; but these times were comparatively modern; and even if we should admit that the Eighuris, who are said to have been governed for a period of two thousand years by an *I'décùt*, or sovereign of their own race, were, in some very early age, a literary and polished nation, it would prove nothing in favour of the Huns, Turks, Mongals, and other savages to the north of Pekin, who seem in all ages, before Muhammed, to have been equally ferocious and illiterate.

Without actual inspection of the manuscripts that have been found near the Caspian, it would be impossible to give a correct opinion concerning them; but one of them, described as written on blue silky paper in letters of gold and silver, not unlike Hebrew, was probably a Tibetan composition of the same kind with that which lay near the source of the Irtysh, and of which *Cossiano*, I believe, made the first accurate version. Another, if we may judge from the description of it, was probably modern Turkish; and none of them could have been of great antiquity.

IV. From ancient monuments, therefore, we have no proof that the Tartars were themselves well instructed, much less that they instructed the world; nor have we any stronger reason to conclude from their general manners and character, that they had made an early proficiency in arts and sciences: even of poetry, the most universal and most natural of the fine arts, we find no genuine specimens ascribed to them, except some horrible war-songs, expressed in Persian by *Ali of Yezd*, and possi-

bly invented by him. After the conquest of Persia by the Mongals, their princes, indeed, encouraged learning, and even made astronomical observations at Samarkand; and, as the Turks, became polished by mixing with the Persians and Arabs, though their very nature, as one of their own writers confesses, had before been like an incurable distemper, and their minds clouded with ignorance. Thus also the Manchu monarchs of China have been patrons of the learned and ingenious; and the emperor *Tienlong* is, if he be now living, a fine Chinese poet. In all these instances the Tartars have resembled the Romans; who, before they had subdued Greece, were little better than tigers in war, and Fauns or Sylvens in science and art.

Before I left Europe, I had insisted, in conversation, that the *Tuzuc*, translated by major *Davy*, was never written by *Taimur* himself, at least not as *Cæsar* wrote his commentaries, for one very plain reason, that no Tartarian king of his age could write at all; and in support of my opinion I had cited *Ibnu Arabsháh*, who, though justly hostile to the savage by whom his native city *Damascus* had been ruined, yet praises his talents and the real greatness of his mind, but adds, "he was wholly illiterate; he neither read nor wrote any thing; and he knew nothing of Arabick, though of Persian, Turkish, and the Mogul dialect he knew as much as was sufficient for his purpose, and no more: he used with pleasure to hear histories read to him, and so frequently heard the same book, that he was able by memory to correct an inaccurate reader." This passage had no effect on the translator, whom great and learned men in India had assured, it seems, that the work was authentic; by which he means composed by the conqueror himself: but the great in

this country might have been unlearned, or the learned might not have been great enough to answer any leading question in a manner that opposed the declared inclination of a British enquirer; and in either case, since no witnesses are named, so general a reference to them will hardly be thought conclusive evidence. On my part I will name a Muselman, whom we all know, and who has enough both of greatness and of learning to decide the question both impartially and satisfactorily: the Nawwâb Mozuffer Jung informed me of his own accord, that no man of sense in Hindustân believed the work to have been composed by Taimûr, but that his favourite, surnamed Hindu Shâh, was known to have written that book and others ascribed to his patron, after many confidential discourses with the Emir, and perhaps nearly in the prince's words as well as in his person; a story which Ali of Yezd, who attended the court of Taimûr, and has given us a flowery panegyric instead of a history, renders highly probable, by confirming the latter part of the Arabian account, and by total silence as to the literary productions of his master. It is true, that a very ingenious, but indigent, native, whom Davy supported, has given me a written memorial on the subject, in which he mentions Taimûr as the author of two works in Turkish; but the credit of his information is overset by a strange apocryphal story of a king of Yemen who invaded, he says, the Emir's dominions, and in whose library the manuscript was afterwards found, and translated by order of Alîshîr, first minister of Taimûr's grandson; and Major Davy himself, before he departed from Bengal, told me, that he was greatly perplexed by finding in a very accurate and old copy of the *Tuzuc*, which he designed to republish with considerable additions, a particular account written, un-

questionably, by Taimûr of his own death. No evidence, therefore, has been adduced to shake my opinion, that the Moguls and Tartars, before their conquest of India and Persia, were wholly unlettered; although it may be possible that, even without art or science, they had, like the Huns, both warriors and lawgivers in their own country some centuries before the birth of Christ.

If learning was ever anciently cultivated in the regions to the north of India, the seats of it, I have reason to suspect, must have been Eighûr, Cashghar, Khâtâ, Chîn, Tancût, and other countries of Chinese Tartary, which lie between the thirty-fifth and forty-fifth degrees of northern latitude; but I shall, in another discourse, produce my reasons for supposing that those very countries were peopled by a race allied to the Hindus, or enlightened at least by their vicinity to India and China; yet in Tancût, which by some is annexed to Tibet, and even among its old inhabitants, the Seres, we have no certain accounts of uncommon talents or great improvements: they were famed, indeed, for the faithful discharge of moral duties, for a pacific disposition, and for that longevity which is often the reward of patient virtues and a calm temper; but they are said to have been wholly indifferent, in former ages, to the elegant arts, and even to commerce; though Fadlûllah had been informed, that near the close of the thirteenth century, many branches of natural philosophy were cultivated in Camchew, then the metropolis of Sérica.

We may readily believe those who assure us that some tribes of wandering Tartars had real skill in applying herbs and minerals to the purposes of medicine, and pretended to skill in magic; but the general character of their nation seems to have been this: they were professed hunters or fishers, dwell-

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ing on that account in forests or near great rivers, under huts or rude tents, or in waggons drawn by their cattle from station to station; they were dextrous archers, excellent horsemen, bold combatants, appearing often to flee in disorder for the sake of renewing their attack with advantage; drinking the milk of mares and eating the flesh of colts; and thus in many respects resembling the old Arabs, but in nothing more than in their love of intoxicating liquors, and in nothing less than in a taste for poetry and the improvement of their language.

Thus has it been proved, and, in my humble opinion, beyond controversy, that the far greater part of Asia has been peopled, and immemorially possessed, by three considerable nations, whom for want of better names, we may call Hindus, Arabs, and Tartars; each of them divided and subdivided into an infinite number of branches, and all of them so different in form and

features, language, manners, and religion, that if they sprang originally from a common root, they must have been separated for ages: whether more than three primitive stocks can be found, or, in other words, whether the Chinese, Japanese, and Persians, are entirely distinct from them, or formed by their intermixture, I shall hereafter, if your indulgence to me continue, diligently enquire. To what conclusions those enquiries will lead, I cannot yet clearly discern; but if they lead to truth, we shall not regret our journey through this dark region of ancient history, in which, while we proceed step by step, and follow every glimmering of certain light that presents itself, we must beware of those false rays and luminous vapours which mislead Asiatick travellers by an appearance of water, but are found, on a near approach, to be deserts of sand.

ACCOUNT OF THE ISLAND OF CYPRUS.

BY THE ABBE MARITI.

[Continued from Page 295.]

THE revenues of the kingdom are abandoned to the grand vizir; but, as he cannot go thither and command in person, he farms them out, and lets them to the highest bidder. The purchaser, furnished with a *kat-suerif*, or special mandate from the grand signior, confirmed by the minister, arrives in his government; and, like the clouds that precede tempests, and which conceal all those scourges that desolate our plains, the presence of this subaltern despot impresses universal terror, and presages every evil.

If interest, and not merit, be here, as it really is, the sure path to preferment, it is also the only rule which regulates the actions of the great. There is nothing to check these avaricious governors. They

fall upon the people with fury; and their subtle tyranny invents a thousand means to get possession of their wealth, and to extort from them the fruits of their toil and labour.—Every day gives birth to a new tax; and the governor, after having fattened on the substance of the people—after having enriched the agents of his cruelty, and become the object of public execration—retires loaded with gold and maledictions, and gives place to a new purchaser; who, to make the best of a bad bargain, thinks himself entitled to exercise every kind of rapacity and oppression. The consequence is, that this beautiful kingdom is reduced to the most deplorable condition, and that it is drained of all its specie. Its soil is highly favoured by

by nature; but, being deprived of its valuable productions, it is converted into a desert; and, by continual emigrations, this delightful spot is now become a melancholy solitude. This, without doubt, is one of the most dreadful and usual effects of despotism. Such are the pictures which ought to be presented to sovereigns jealous of unlimited sway, and whose authority is often buried under the ruins of over-stretched power. In no country whatever are taxes more accumulated. Altogether, they amount to about two hundred piastres for each citizen, whatever may be his rank or his fortune. Capitation, throughout the whole Turkish empire, is twenty piastres; but here it amounts to forty, and it was only by a special favour that it was reduced to twenty-one. In 1764 the people found themselves so much oppressed that they revolted: and, having forced the gates of the governor's palace, massacred the tyrant. This attempt was attended with the most fatal consequences. As I was an eye-witness of them, and one of the principal negociators in the accommodation brought about between the two parties, by means of the Italian consul, I shall speak of them in another place.

The court of the muhassil is composed of the camadar, or treasurer; the kiaja, or secretary; the sciaufces, or private guards; and the ciocadars, a kind of subalterns, whose number is not fixed: they, however, generally amount to from an hundred to an hundred and fifty. They consist of those useless beings so common in courts, who are a real superfluity, maintained through pride; and the superfluities of kings unluckily always deprive the people of some part of their necessities. The sciaufces, and the ciocadars, have each their respective chiefs, called bafa-sciaufce, and bafa ciocadar. Besides these, there are also the farafs, through whose hands all the money passes that is deposited in the casna,

or treasury. Their business is to examine whether it be good, and to count it. They are all Greeks, as well as the dragoman of the seraglio, or interpreter of the palace, who shares this office with the firman, or commandant of the Porte.

When new taxes are to be imposed, the governor does not address himself directly to the people, but to the dragoman; and the latter to the archbishop, who informs his diocese, in order to regulate the levying of them, and to prevent frauds and law-suits. From all these preliminaries, one might readily imagine that there would, at least, remain some resource to the people when oppressed; and that the zeal of the archbishop would set bounds to tyranny, and oppose to insatiable avarice the remonstrances of patriotism and humanity. But here, as in many other countries, the protector of the people is only a vain image. He never raises up his voice with courage in favour of the oppressed: political meannesses, and sordid interest, soon make him the slave of despotism; and this base hireling, by signing the oppressive register, authorises acts of violence, which secure his credit and his fortune.

Among the extraordinary taxes here, there is one which is highly singular. When the governor has occasion for money, every method of procuring it is equally good. He then imposes a tax upon some particular name, which he points out; and I shall never forget that it was the name of George which was taxed at the time when I arrived in the island. It is to be remarked, that the Greeks only are subjected to this kind of imposition. Nothing proves in a more striking manner the profound contempt which these governors entertain for their unhappy subjects. Not contented with putting them up to sale like cattle, and purchasing the right of tormenting them at their ease, they do not even attempt to colour over their violence, and to the most burthen-

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some impositions add the most insulting derision. Can we be astonished, therefore, that so many outrages should sometimes arouse the vengeance of these irritated people? and can we blame them for daring to remember that they are men?

Gold here is the universal agent; and every thing is purchased by it, even to the blood of the citizens. The law, it is true, orders an assassin to be put to death; but the criminal, by paying a few hundred piastres, easily avoids its vengeance. The inhabitants of the place where the crime is committed, are subjected also to a tax, the produce of which is carried to the grand signior's treasure. The fine for murdering a man between thirty and thirty-five years of age, is five hundred piastres. In all other cases, the time that he might have lived, as well as the revenue that his premature death may have deprived his sovereign of, are calculated; and the murderer is made to pay the equivalent, and very often a great deal more. If premeditated assassination can by money escape the severity of the laws, it may be readily imagined that this must be the case much more in regard to involuntary homicide.

The tribunals to which all civil and criminal cases are referred, are called *Mehemes*. The president of these tribunals is, in the capital, a mullah; and in towns, or large villages, a *cadi*. Trials here are determined in the space of a few hours. The Turks have no written laws: the Koran, which is their sacred code, and which is called *The Book* by excellence, supplies the place of them. Every good *cadi* ought to have several passages of it about him. These passages are suited to every circumstance; and are contained on long scrolls, which are wrapped around the head in the form of a turban. —Every one, however, interprets them after his own manner, and almost always gives them a meaning different from that of the legislator. Every person summoned before these

tribunals for debt, if he loses his suit, must pay to the *cadi* the tenth part of the sum in litigation; but, if he gains it, this burthen falls upon the plaintiff. The *cadi* has a right also to the tenth part of the effects of every person who dies in his district. The valuation of them is made in an amicable manner, and without severity.

Besides these tribunals, there are sixteen *cadilichs*, in each of which a *cadi* sits as president. Of this kind of magistracy, the mullah is the supreme chief. In these tribunals, no sentences are passed but what are subject to revision. In cases of importance, a state of the affair is drawn up, and delivered to the governor, who transmits it to the mullah; for the governor cannot dispose of the life of any citizen, until he has previously conferred with the mullah, whose consent is absolutely necessary.

The military government of the island is in the hands of the *ali-bey*, general of the *spahis*, or cavalry, and the *aga-janissary*, or commandant of infantry. Their respective captains are called *zaim* and *cioluagini*. There ought to be three thousand *spahis* in the island, and about eight thousand *janissaries*; but there are scarcely ever more than an hundred of the former, and two thousand of the latter. The pay, however, is always the same, and is received by the commanders.

When the Turks conquered Cyprus, they reckoned in it, besides women, children, and old people, seventy thousand men, subject to capitation. Such was always the number of its inhabitants, in the short moments of its splendour and glory: and the grand signior, at the rate of five piastres per head, drew from it an annual revenue of 400,000. But despotism having over-run this rich island, its sources of abundance dried up, and its population decreased. The same exactions were however continued; and those who survived the disasters of their country,

try, and whom indigence and the force of habit rivetted to that unfortunate soil, saw themselves loaded without mercy. The progression of the taxes was as immense as rapid; and at the time when the bashaws quitted the island, they amounted to forty piastres for each citizen. At present there are scarcely twelve thousand men subject to capitation; and though, as I have already said, it is now reduced to twenty-one piastres per head, the revenue still amounts to 250,000 piastres; and this sum, added to the extraordinary taxes, forms an annual revenue of 540,000. If it be remarked that, though the number of the taxes is scarcely a sixth part of what it was formerly, the whole of the revenue has been increased a fifth, one may then have some idea of the oppression and rapacity which the governors, magistrates, clerks, and a multitude of subaltern agents, exercise against these unhappy islanders.

The population of Cyprus has so much decreased, that the inhabitants scarcely amount to forty thousand. This calculation is perhaps not very exact; for, to ascertain the truth in this respect, is a matter of great difficulty, both in Cyprus, and in all the other countries of the Levant. The orientals do not, like us, keep any register of births and deaths: no notion, therefore, can be formed of their population but from the number of those who pay taxes, and who are not above a third part of the whole. To this may be added, that the women are much more numerous than the men—an observation which I have often made, and which was confirmed to me by all the people with whom I had any intercourse in the Levant.

From this it would appear as if polygamy, so common among the orientals, had been pointed out by nature itself: for were they obliged, like the Europeans, to confine themselves to one woman, all the rest would be useless; and this superabundance would be an exception

to a very true axiom, that nature has made nothing in vain. The character of these people, and the ideas which they seem to have formed of love, still tend to support the justness of the above reflections. That ecstasy and delirium, that union of souls which leads us into a kind of intoxication, that deifies, in our eyes, the object of our affection, identifies us with it, and renders love a divine emotion, and an indissoluble chain—are never known here; all the different shades of sensibility escape them. They feel nothing of the moral influence of love, and are acquainted only with its madness: it is a want which they gratify, and not a sentiment that hurries them away. An European always embellishes the object whom he loves; he discovers every day, and every moment, new charms and new graces, which he multiplies, as one may say; and experiences, even in constancy, all the pleasures of variety. Such is love in temperate regions, where the two powers of which man is formed are in harmony; where the physical sensation is subordinate to the moral sentiment: and this strengthens the natural and religious obligation of adhering to one woman. But, on the contrary, if love be only a physical want, an animal instinct, such a passion admits no choice; it is not exclusive; and nothing can supply to him who experiences it a sufficient number of objects. Such is love in those countries where the irresistible and continual action of a scorching atmosphere destroys the harmony of the two powers; where the violence of the sensation extinguishes the energy of the sentiment; where man yields to the most impetuous of passions, and not to the mildest of affections: and this gives rise to a plurality of women. Polygamy, therefore, will be a natural consequence of those warm temperatures, and of the constitution of the orientals; and a superabundance of women, instead of being an error of nature, will become

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come a proof of her wisdom and intelligence. Perhaps also (for I will not warrant the justness of the above observations) she has produced women in greater abundance in some countries, with a view to induce the different nations of the earth to connect themselves together by alliances; and to form of the universe one country, and of the scattered tribes of man one family.

This island was formerly one of the richest and most fertile in the world. It abounded with mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, marcasite, rock alum, and even emeralds; but of these ancient productions nothing now remains except the remembrance, and the names of the places from which they were procured.

The present government fetters curiosity in this respect, and forbids every kind of research. Some centuries ago, a great quantity of oil was made here; but in the time of the Venetians, a spirit of speculation abolished that useful branch, and the cultivation of olives was abandoned for that of cotton. Saffron, rhubarb, and other valuable productions, are at present totally neglected. Deers, roebucks, asses, wild boars, and a great number of the most beautiful pheasants, once enlivened the plains of Cyprus; but they are all now destroyed: and it would seem as if these animals had refused to embellish a country which is no longer the seat of liberty.

[To be concluded in our next.]

AN ENQUIRY INTO THE ORIGIN OF THE NAME OF THE SCOTTISH NATION.

BY SIR JAMES FOULIS, OF COLINTON, BART.

From the Transactions of the Society of Antiquaries of Scotland.

I know not from what odd propensity, in the composition of human nature, arises a desire in mankind to carry the account of their nation or family into as remote antiquity as they can. Some person, possessed of this unaccountable passion, has endeavoured to deduce the origin of the Scots from an Egyptian prince, foster-mother to the Hebrew legislator. As I know no other authority for this story than a fond desire of the inventor to impose it for truth, I shall pass it over and let it remain as I found it. Some chuse to derive the name of Scot from Sceot, an old word that signifies a shield, and from whence probably comes the Latin word *Scutum*. So they suppose the people were called Scots, quasi Scutati. Had the Scots been the only Scutati, this might very probably have been the reason for others to give, and them to assume that name. But when the name of Scot first prevailed, all

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nations used shields; so that no probable reason can be assigned why that name should be affixed to any one people, from a custom that was common to all. Some other accounts are given of the origin of this name, which are all so evidently ill-founded, that it is needless to refute them. But the conjectures of the author of the history of Manchester seem to require a more particular consideration, as he has investigated British antiquities with great acuteness and ability, and has marked out in part, why the Scots were called by that name. His account, in short, is this—

The Belgæ expelled from several parts of England the former inhabitants, who fled to Ireland, and took possession of the sea-coasts. The Belgæ, pursuing them thither, compelled them to leave the sea-coast, and seek for refuge among the lakes and forests in the internal parts of that island. So far he copies from history, and adds, as

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his own conjecture, that the fugitives, thus twice reduced to the necessity of shifting their place of residence, were upon that account called Scuit, which we now write and pronounce Scot. This word signifies Wanderers; and Mr. Whitaker supposes that the Belgæ gave them that name by way of insult: but if this had been the reason of calling them Wanderers, that title, or epithet, was equally as applicable to the Belgæ themselves, who had wandered every foot as far as the others; consequently that name could have been no proper mark of distinction. Besides, as we know from history that a body of Germans had very early got possession of a considerable part of Belgia, it is very probable that the Belgæ, who invaded England, were not of Celtic, but Teutonic origin. In this case, they could never have given the appellation of Scuit, to the people whom they had driven away, as there is no dialect of the Teutonic language in which that word denotes a Wanderer. The Teutonic word that comes nearest it denotes swiftness. If any person should alledge that the Belgæ gave that name to the others for running away, still the name could not have been a proper distinction, since, for any thing we can perceive, the Belgæ ran as fast and as far after them. Mr. Whitaker indeed maintains that these invading Belgæ were Celts, because he finds that the names of the rivers and mountains in their English territories were all Celtic; but he did not reflect that rivers and mountains generally retain the names imposed by the first possessors. New incomers give new names only to towns, villages, canals, and such other things as are of their own making. In consequence of his way of arguing on this point, it would follow that the Saxons and Normans, who afterwards became masters of those territories, were also Celts, because they also con-

tinued to call rivers and mountains by the old Celtic names, and by which they are known at this day. But, whatever these Belgæ may have been, there does not appear in Mr. Whitaker's account of the matter any sufficient reason why the name of Scuit, that is, Wanderers, should be given to the Irish. And yet by that name they were certainly once called. Now, let us consider his account of the manner in which he supposes the name of Scuit to have been transferred to the people by whom this very ancient title has been preserved and continued.

Taking the poems of Ossian as his principal guide, he gives us the following relation: the king of the Creones, who possessed the north-west part of Caledonia, placed one of his family on the throne of Ireland: the reigning family of the Creones becoming extinct by the death of Ossian, was succeeded by an Irish prince, of a collateral branch. This prince, as Mr. Whitaker supposes, gave to his new subjects the name of Scuit, which he had brought with him from his father's kingdom.

But, before we can adopt this opinion as an undeniable truth, we must first take the liberty to examine its probability, by comparing it with similar cases. William of Nassau, a Dutchman, became king of Britain, but the people did not acquire the name of Nassawians, or Dutchmen; George of Hanover, a German, became king of Britain, yet its name was neither changed to Hanover nor Germany; Philip, a Frenchman, became king of all the Spains, yet Spain on that account was not called New France. I will even venture to say, that if Philip had attempted to change the word Spain for that of France, the whole body of the Spanish nation would probably have opposed him, more successfully than the various powers of Europe, that were allied against his succession. By parity of

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of reason, the Irish prince, who became king of the Creones, would find himself under the absolute necessity of doing as William, George, and Philip afterwards did, that is, of taking his title from the people over whom he reigned, not from the people among whom he was born. Perhaps it may be alledged that the Irish prince brought with him so powerful a colony of Scuit, that the name insensibly became common to the whole nation. But, in this case, where could we have settled them, or wherewith could he have fed them? The more fertile parts of Caledonia, that could well receive an increase of the number of inhabitants, were an acquisition made to Scotland long after his days. The north-west part of our country, which constituted the whole of his kingdom, is mountainous and unfertile. Nor can we suppose that the Creones of those days would have been more willing to have given up their herds and mountains to their new guests, than our fathers would have been to have delivered over their estates to William's Dutchmen, or George's Hanoverians. The kingdom of Scotland too was elective till towards the end of the tenth century, with this only restriction, that the electors were obliged to chuse one of the royal family. Now as this foreign prince was called to reign in another island, where his best title to the crown arose from the good will of his constituents, we can scarcely suppose that he would have attempted a measure, in which, considering the force of national prejudices, he must have been opposed by the unanimous voice of his subjects. An idle measure too, from the success of which he could have reaped no advantage, but from its failure he might have felt the worst of consequences.

Having, as appears to me, sufficiently proved that the reasons above assigned for giving the name

of Scuit to one people and transferring it to another are insufficient, I will venture to produce my own conjectures, and hope to give as convincing proofs of their probability as the nature of the subject can admit.

Mankind was early divided into two distinct professions, one that lived by agriculture, and the other that trusted for subsistence to hunting and the increase of their cattle. The first would naturally, and almost necessarily, settle upon the spots where they had cleared away the woods, and drained the marshes; the other ranged from place to place, as fresh pasture sprung up, or new game was started. These last were in reality Scuit, or Wanderers, and received that appellation. The coincidence of the language and the manners, where the customs of the people are expressed in the idea conveyed by the word, seems to be a proof of its propriety similar to our knowing the portraits of our friends by their having a striking resemblance of the originals. As the Celtic language once extended over an immense tract, I have not the least doubt that this was the true origin of the name of the people whom the Greeks called *Skuthai*. *Quorum plaustra vagas rite trahunt domos*; the opposition of the way of living of those people to that of the Romans was so striking, that the poet has here expressed, and indeed, without knowing it, has properly translated the word Scuit by *Vagas*: and if an old Scot was to translate the *Vagas Domos* of Horace, he would call them *Thigh-Scuit*, which in modern English means *Scottish Houses*. Though the Greeks, according to their constant manner, turned the word to suit the idiom of their own language, the *Skuthai* were in reality the Scuit, behind the *Palus Mocotis*, and the Scuit in Ireland and Caledonia were the *Skuthai* in this other remote corner of the then known world. Accordingly, in the few

fragments of their poems that have reached us, we find frequent mention of, and allusion to hunting, and herds of cattle, without the least mention of agriculture; a strong proof of the agreement of manners between the Scuit and *Skuthai*. This appellation may seem to us a term of reproach, but to people habituated to this way of life, it would appear an honourable distinction. They would even look with contempt on the inhabitants of cities, as many of the Tartars and Arabs do at this day; and in comparing the opposite manners of living, they would say most sincerely, and more from the heart than Horace did, *quanto melius Scythae*. Even at this hour, it is the custom in the mountains of Scotland, and in some parts of Ireland, that people in summer remove to feed their cattle on the hills, dwelling, during that season, in huts, called *Sheelings* among us, and in winter retire to their warmer habitations in the vallies.* So the Irish prince, when he came to Caledonia, found his people were Scuit, and he left them Scuit. Nor is it hard to find the reasons for the name's being lost in the one country, while it flourished and spread wider in the other. The Firbolgs, the Faolans, the Tuathals, and others had conquered and peopled the greatest part of Ireland, so that the original Scuit were reduced to small numbers, and narrow bounds. The different invaders by degrees forgot their former distinctions, till at last the custom prevailed of the whole being denominated from the island they inhabited. On the contrary, the asperity of their mountains defended the Caledonian Scuit from foreign arms, so that there was no reason for changing their former name. Their king, Kenneth Macalpin, having, by a

long and bloody war, made good his claim to the Pictish crown, the custom prevailed to call all his dominions by his former title.

That the Romans mention not the Scoti at their first acquaintance with Britain, is no reason to conclude that there was no such people in it. They at that time knew little of the island; and their own historians tell us, that they were uncertain whether it was an island or not till the days of Vespasian. Besides, the Romans despised every language but their own. Rome had stood some hundreds of years before they would condescend even to learn Greek. Thus they could have but a very imperfect knowledge of all the distinctions among a people with whom they had so short an acquaintance, as they had with those of the north of Scotland. Were I to mark out the time when the Romans came at length to learn the name of Scoti; I would conclude that it was when their chains were so fast riveted on the Britons, that these unhappy islanders found themselves under, what would be to them, a very disagreeable necessity, of learning the language of their oppressors; when those polite and humane conquerors had scourged the mothers, and ravished the daughters.

Mr. Whitaker attempts to support the truth of his suppositions, from the name of Argyle-shire, and from our calling the language Erse. But these two words require only to be explained in order to shew that they give no support to his hypothesis. As all the original inhabitants of Britain were Gæil, Argyle was naturally distinguished by the appellation of Jar-gæil, that is, Western Gæils, being situated in the most western division of that part of Britain, and indeed in the

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* It appears from the *Collesanea de Rebus Hibernicis*, that numbers of the northern Irish, who contend that they are also Scots, were in the constant practice of driving their cattle to pasture in the neighbouring countries; and this custom continued till about the middle of last century, at which time laws were made to regulate and restrain them.

most westerly part of the whole island, except the narrow promontory of the land's end in Cornwall. If we call the language Erse, it is because in the lowlands of Scotland we use the Anglo-Saxon dialect, which began among us from the

multitudes of the English Saxons, who found a refuge in North Britain from the lash of Norman tyranny. and we use the word that was in use among them who had been more acquainted with the Irish.

AS a knowledge of the seat of war, and of the situation of places attacked or besieged, is of importance, we shall, during the continuation of the war, present our readers with such topographical information as we think useful.

TOPOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION OF LISLE, CONDE, VALENCIENNES, AND MAUBEUGE.

LISLE, or Lille, in Latin *Insula*, and in Dutch *Ryssel*, having the name of *L'Isle*, i. e. an island, from its being formerly surrounded by a lake, which has been long since drained. This is the capital city of French Flanders, and of all the parts conquered by that nation in the Netherlands. It lies on the river *Deule*. It is beautifully built, and was very strong when the French took it in 1667. But its fortifications have been since considerably increased by marshal de Vauban, and its citadel is the finest in Europe; so that this is reckoned one of the strongest places in the world, as the English and their confederates experienced, when prince Eugene took it in December 1708, after the battle of Oudenarde, and a siege of three months, a month intervening between the taking of the city and the citadel; during which time they lost a great number of men before the place. It was again ceded to the French by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713. In that interval the States General of the United Provinces, who kept a garrison at Lille, sent thither a French minister, who found a considerable number of protestants. A great number of them retired into Zealand and Leyden, upon the city coming again under the dominion of France. The ancient fortifications, repaired and improved by Vauban, consisted only

of an irregular bastion, composed but of two flanks and one face; but now surrounded with numberless new works, consisting of four large bastions, covered with half moons, horn-works, tenaillons of earth, &c. The citadel is the first which Vauban built: it is a pentagon, composed of five regular bastions, and before each courtine a tenaillon of earth. Within the place is the governor's house, with several sets of caserns. The citadel is surrounded with a deep ditch, encompassed by a covert-way, with its glacis. There are two gates to this fortress, one towards the city, and the other towards the country. Beyond the glacis is an avant-fosse, which has a communication with the ditch of the town, also surrounded with the covert-way and glacis, covered by half moons, intrenchments, redoubts, &c. The esplanade or void space between the city and citadel is planted with four rows of trees, forming very pleasant walks. The general governor of French Flanders is also governor of Lille, who has a lieutenant of the king, a major, &c. to supply his place when absent. There is also a governor, a king's lieutenant, &c. for the citadel. The states of the province of Lille meet commonly once a year, the governor presiding there; the other members are the magistrates of Lille, who have always the first rank, and deputies from the magistrates

trates of Douay and Orchies. The sum which the king demands generally amounts to 250,000 livres; which is always granted. This arises from the twentieth part of the revenue of their estates, and from duties and taxes. Besides, the city of Lisle pays yearly 37,500 livres towards the repairs of the fortifications; and the city of Douay raises also 40,000 for the same purpose. As the clergy and nobility pay no subsidy, they do not assist at the assembly; but three or four days after they are called together, and a sum demanded of them, who grant the king a twentieth part and an half of the income of such estates as they cultivate themselves. The gabelle, or duty upon salt, is not established in any of these conquered countries. The magistracy of the city and district of Lisle is composed of a mayor (Reuvart), twelve aldermen, &c. Here is a considerable manufacture of silk, cambric, fine linen, seiges, and other stuffs; particularly their camblets are much admired. Little more than half a century ago they used to make here above 300,000 pieces of stuff. But the calamities inseparable from war have obliged vast numbers of workmen to retire to Ghent, Brussels, &c. and several protestant families have since the peace of Utrecht quitted this city. Here are several fine buildings, particularly an exchange for the merchants, which is square, and surrounded with piazzas, which with the port royal, the theatre, the barracks, and the cathedral, are much admired. In Lisle there are about 50 churches, one of which is collegiate, and 10 parochial, several fine convents, and an hospital, in which it is said the sick are served in plate. Besides, here is a mint erected in 1685. for recoining all the Spanish coin: the new species were called *Bourguignons* or *burgundians*, as being stamped with the arms of France and Burgundy, of which latter Lisle

was once a part. It is reckoned, that in less than eight years time they have coined here of those pieces to the value of 7,000,000 of livres, and recoined about 28,000,000 of all sorts of gold and silver species. The Jesuits had a college in Lisle. It lies 14 miles W. of Tournay, 26 E. of Aire, and 25 N. of Arras, Lat. 50, 46, N. Long. 3, 12, E.

CONDE, a small city of French Hainault, and government of Flanders, near the confluence of the rivers Haine and Scheldt. Its fortifications have been considerably improved by the French, since they took the place in 1676; and it was yielded to them by the treaty of Nimeguen in 1678. By means of sluices, the whole neighbouring country can be laid under water. It gives title of prince to a branch of the Bourbon family, and is the seat of a collection, has a collegiate church, the chapter of which consists of twenty-six prebendaries. Here is a military governor, lieutenant, major, aid-major, and a captain of the gates. It lies 13 miles W. of Mons, Lat. 50, 36, N. Long. 3, 48, E.

VALENCIENNES, a strong, large, and well built city of Hainault, in the French Netherlands, on the river Scheldt. It is defended by a citadel, and has also sluices that can lay the country round under water. Here are considerable silk and linen manufactures, with an university. The French took it from the Spaniards in 1674, and it still continues in their possession. It lies about five miles S. of Tournay. Lat. 50, 24, N. Long. 3, 23, E.

MAUBEUGE, a fortress of French Hainault, in the Netherlands. It stands on the river Sambre; Louis XIV. fortified it very strongly, upon its being ceded to him, by the peace of Nimeguen. It lies 12 miles S. of Mons. Lat. 50, 31, N. Long. 3, 51, E.

ANECDOTES OF MARGARET OF VALDEMAR.

MARGARET, the daughter of Valdemar III, and Hedwige his queen, was born in 1353; and if we may give credit to some of the Danish historians, owed her being to a circumstance as singular as her whole life is illustrious and eminent. Valdemar, in returning from an hunting party, chanced to repair to the castle of Seborg, where he had confined his consort Hedwige on account of some ill grounded suspicions. Being pleased with one of the queen's attendants, he proposed an interview: the woman feigned compliance, but substituted her mistress in her stead, and Margaret was the fruit of their meeting; which has led a Danish historian to remark, in the high style of panegyric, that the good which he unconsciously performed that night in begetting Margaret, amply compensated for the evil actions of his life. In the sixth year of her age she was betrothed to Haquin king of Norway, son of Magnus king of Sweden, which was the first step to her future greatness. This marriage after much opposition on the part of the Swedes, was solemnized at Copenhagen, in 1363, when she was only in the eleventh year of her age. Margaret gave so many proofs of her prudence and courage when Haquin lost the crown of Sweden, as induced Valdemar frequently to say of her, that nature intended her for a man, and had erred in making her a woman.

Upon the demise of her father in 1375, she had the address to secure the election of her son Oloff then only five years of age, in preference to the son of her eldest sister Ingeburga; and upon the death of her husband Haquin, she secured his succession to the crown of Norway. Being regent during Oloff's minority, her administration was so vigorous, prudent, and popular, that upon his premature death in 1385, she was chosen queen by the States of

Denmark; the first instance, perhaps, in a government wholly elective, and in which custom had not authorized the election of a female, of a woman being exalted to the throne by the free and unanimous suffrages of a warlike people. With the same address she procured the crown of Norway; and was equally successful in gaining that of Sweden. Albert had been chosen king, and might have preserved his power if it had not been his fate to contend with such a rival as Margaret. When in allusion to her sex, he styled her, in derision, the king in petticoats, she answered his reproach by actions, not by words; and made him sorely repent of his vaunts, when he found himself worsted in every engagement; when deposed and captive, he owed his life to the clemency of the very woman whom he had so wantonly insulted. By the famous union of Calmar, in 1367, she united the three Northern kingdoms, and held them undivided during her reign, notwithstanding the aversion of the Swedes to the Danish government.

But from nothing is the vigour and policy of her conduct more conspicuous than from this consideration, that the perpetual revolts and intestine convulsions, which continually disturbed the reigns of the sovereigns who immediately preceded and followed her, were subdued throughout her whole administration. This internal tranquillity, more glorious, though less splendid, than her warlike achievements, and which was very unusual in those turbulent times, could only be derived from the over ruling ascendancy of her superior genius.

This great princels died suddenly on the 27th of October, 1412, in the 60th year of her age, and if we include the period of her regency, in the 30th of her reign, leaving the three kingdoms to the quiet possession.

session of her successor, Eric of Pomerania; and to her subjects the regret of her loss, by the experience of those calamities which broke in upon the state when the sceptre was wielded by a less able hand.

COMPARISON OF LYCURGUS AND ST. FRANCIS D'ASSISE.

BY THE MARQUIS D'ARCONSON.

IN reading the life of Lycurgus, in Plutarch, and the history of Lacedemon, I could not but call to mind an odd comparison, and without doubt ridiculous, which I have somewhere read; it is a well drawn and very droll parallel, between Lycurgus and Saint Francis D'Assise. The principles of these two legislators are, it is said, the same; the Lacedemonians made vows like the capuchin friars; namely 1st, that of poverty, or at least disappropriation, since they held all their property in common, lands, provisions, buildings and cloaths; gold and silver were forbidden them; if there were any at Lacedemon, they belonged to the state.—2d. With respect to the vow of obedience, it was no where better observed than in Sparta; the soldier was kept in the most exact discipline; the people had no part in the government; it was composed of monarchy and aristocracy: the kings represented the provincial and the guardian,* the ephori the definitor.—3d. It is not so easy to prove, that the Lacedemonians made a vow of chastity; for it is well known they had usages and customs quite contrary: but the principal object of the institutions of orders, and by which they bound each member of a religious society, and that of the Latin church, (which subjected in like manner all its priests) was to take away the right of inheritance, and to concentrate, or rather extend in general society, the interest divided otherwise among families.

Such was the spirit of the laws of Lycurgus, as well as that of Saint Francis: men forget on enter-

ing into that order, their fathers and mothers; they abjure the ties of consanguinity; they are not even attached to any particular convent; they are cosmopolites as far as the world of Saint Francis reaches. The spirit of the institutions of Lycurgus is lost, like that of the rules of the Saint: every thing becomes corrupted, and is in the end destroyed, and generally by the same causes.

The Lacedemonians found their manner of living too austere; they envied their neighbours the agreeable life they enjoyed, and thought that having conquered them, they ought like them, to enjoy their riches. In like manner the Monks having made themselves respected, admired, and esteemed, thought to take advantage of the consideration they had in the world, in order to enrich, if not their persons, at least their monasteries. The Mendicants even are become rich and proprietors. Philosophy, sciences and arts, which produce ease and convenience, corrupted Athens, and ruined Lacedemon; so the Cordeliers have been admitted into the University of Paris, and have there canvassed for the honours of doctorship; no means are left of reconciling these fine titles with the very austere life they ought to lead, and the extreme poverty of which they have made profession. Different reforms have been in vain attempted to reduce the monks to their first institution. Finally, having quite lost the virtues of their order, it is easy to foresee, that in a little time there will be no more monks than Spartans.

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* Officers or inspectors belonging to the order of Saint Francis.

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REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

FOREIGN.

LA VIE DU FELD MARECHAL BARON DE LOUDON: or, *The Life of the Field Marshal Baron de Loudon, translated from the German of M. Pezzl. By the Baron de Bock.* 8vo. Vienna, 1792.

GIDEON ERNEST, baron de Loudon, or Laudohn, is here said to have been descended from a noble and ancient family in Ayrshire, North Britain, a part of which settled in Livonia, in the fourteenth century. The descendants of this branch acquired several fiefs there, on account of their services, but they were dispossessed of the greatest part of them by Charles XI. of Sweden. During the reign of Charles XII. the nobility of that province endeavoured to reinstate themselves in their ancient rights and privileges, but that monarch put their representative, the celebrated and unfortunate Patkul, to death, and on this, all their hopes and projects vanished.

Most of the male line of the family of Loudon betook themselves to the profession of arms; and an uncle of the marshal's was a captain in the royal guards of one of the kings of Sweden. He himself was born in 1716, at Tootzen, in Livonia.

Although his education was exceedingly neglected, the extraordinary genius with which he was endowed by nature, in a great measure supplied this defect; he however felt the inconvenience arising from it, frankly confessed, and often lamented it.

At the age of fifteen, having acquired some little knowledge of geography and geometry, he entered into the service of Russia, as a cadet, in a regiment of infantry. A short time after [in 1733] the double election having created great disturbances in Poland, the Russians entered that country, and declared in favour of the party that supported the interest of Frederic Augustus of Saxony. Stanislaus Leszcynsky his rival, being obliged to fly to Dantzic,

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the Russians followed him, besieged and took that city, but the king had the good fortune to make his escape. Affairs were in this position when M. Loudon made his first essay in arms.

In 1735, the Russians appeared for the first time, in the territories of the German empire. The empress Anne sent a body of troops thither, in order to succour it against the enterprises of the French, and among those troops which had come from the banks of the Woiga to the Rhine, was our young warrior. The preliminaries of peace having been signed at Vienna, the assistance of the Russians became useless. On the other hand, their presence had become absolutely necessary in their own country, in order to repel the Tartars of the Crimea, who had made an invasion, and committed unheard of disorders in the provinces. This was the reason that war was declared against the grand signior their protector.

The troops repaired with incredible celerity from the borders of the Rhine, to those of the Dnieper, and on their arrival there, still found the country smoking with the fires kindled by the Tartars. It was at this epoch, and under the command of the brave marshal de Munich, that those glorious campaigns commenced against the Turks, which continued from 1736 to 1739. Asofch was taken; the lines of Perckop were carried by assault; the Russians victorious at Oczakow, Staveckochane, at Choczim; invaded and occupied Moldavia, and punished the inhabitants of the Crimea, by pillaging and ravaging their country.

M. de Loudon was present at all these actions. We are ignorant of the share that he had in them, but we are certain that he passed through all the intermediate ranks, to that of first lieutenant, a proof that he had done his duty, and that the talents of an able officer were already discoverable in him.

After the conclusion of the peace of 1739, between Russia and the Porte, young Loudon left the army and repaired to Petersburg, partly to complain of some injustice that he had experienced in the course of the late campaigns, and partly to solicit for his further advancement, but not succeeding in either of these objects, he determined to quit the service of the empress Anne, and enter into that of the empress Maria Theresa, who had succeeded her father Charles VI. and now found herself attacked on all sides.

As he passed through Berlin, he happened to meet with several officers, along with whom he had served in the war

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against the Turks, and they proposed to him, to enter into the service of Prussia, offering at the same time to introduce him to the king, and to ask for a company in his behalf.

M. de Loudon consented. After the expiration of a few weeks, the day of audience at length arrives, and he is presented to the king. But Frederic II. after having considered his features very attentively, turned his back upon the stranger, and said to the officers who attended him: "the physiognomy of this man does not suit me." It was thus, that he drove from his kingdom a person, who, to judge from appearances, was of very little importance, but who, in the end, became the most formidable adversary of this powerful monarch.

Was Frederic ignorant of the art of physiognomy, or is this manner of judging mankind deceitful? is not the genius always depicted in the features? I know not; it is sufficient to say that Frederic disclaimed Loudon, and conducted himself with regard to him, as Louis XIV. did in respect to prince Eugene of Savoy; that great king refused him [for he at that time assumed the dress of an abbé] first a prebendary, and afterwards a troop of dragoons, which caused him to leave France, in order to repair to Austria, just as M. de Loudon left Berlin, on purpose to go to Vienna. How much must these two monarchs have afterwards repented of this error, when the names of Hockstedt, of Turin, of Oudenarde, of Milplaquet, on one hand, and of Olmutz, of Kunerstorff, Landshut, of Glatz, of Schweidnitz, on the other, recalled these heroes to their memory!

Having arrived at Vienna in 1742, our young adventurer found means to be introduced to Maria Theresa, and was soon after made a captain of Pandours, in the corps commanded by Francis Trenck, which, although concealed by his historian, was neither more nor less than a body of military free-booters, who lived upon plunder, and served under the orders of a chief, destitute of character, honour, or even common honesty.

In a skirmish with the French advanced posts near Zabern, captain de Loudon was wounded by a musket ball, which entered a little above his right breast, and came out near the shoulder blade. It is not a little remarkable, that this is the only wound he ever received during

the whole course of his life, notwithstanding he passed through the midst of so many thousands of bayonets and of sabres, and was so often exposed to the ravages of artillery and musketry.

Having quitted the regiment of Trenck, as well as the service, soon after the battle of Soor, he returned to Vienna, determined to leave the dominion of the house of Austria in disgust, but his friends very fortunately dissuaded him from carrying this resolution into practice, and soon procured a majority for him in the regiment of Liscaner, at that time stationed on the frontiers.

In a short time after this, he married mademoiselle Claire de Hagen, the daughter of an officer, at Pöfing, in Hungary, by whom he had only one daughter, who died very young.

M. de Loudon profited greatly by his residence in Croatia. Whenever his duty would permit him, he employed his leisure in acquiring a knowledge of the theory of the art of war, and bestowed much pains and attention in the study of geometry and geography. He accordingly procured a great number of charts, designs, and military plans. The following anecdote is remarkable, because it seems to announce, that he anticipated his future grandeur.

He had one day received an excellent chart, of an extraordinary size. Having carefully unrolled it on the floor of his chamber, he threw himself down upon it, in order to consider it more narrowly. Madame de Loudon, quite unhappy at his perpetual studies, cries out to him—"Ah! my dear major, why are you continually occupied with these horrid plans!"

"Let me alone, my dear madam, [replied he] for my present labours will be of great service to me, when I am a field marshal."

In 1756, just at the commencement of the seven years war, M. de Loudon was made a lieutenant-colonel of Croats, and taken under

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the protection of the prince de Kaunitz, who continued to befriend him during the whole course of his life.

On marshal Brown's retreat out of Saxony, lieutenant-colonel de Loudon surprised the town of Estchen with 500 of his troops, cut two squadrons of Prussian hussars in pieces, and took a great number of horses. This was his first exploit, and indeed the first action of any consequence during the campaign; soon after this, he distinguished himself at the attack of Herlsfeld, and in consequence of his conduct on that occasion was raised to the rank of colonel in the month of February, 1757.

During the campaign of 1758, he was invested with the order of Maria Theresa, and soon after distinguished himself in such a manner, against the Prussians at Domstædtl, that he was raised to the rank of lieutenant field marshal. Having taken possession of the town of Peitz, he was then employed in covering the flank of field marshal Daun's army, and incommode the king of Prussia in such a manner, that he attacked him twice in person.

After the battle of Hochkirken, field marshal Daun filled his official letter to the empress with eulogiums on Loudon, who had been sent in pursuit of Frederic, and whose army he harrassed unceasingly, until it went into winter quarters.

Most of the generals were accustomed to pass the winter at Vienna, and the empress now testified a particular desire to see M. de Loudon in her capital. He accordingly set out for it, but he was obliged to remain for some time at Dæplitz, in Bohemia, on account of relapsing into the same malady [a cholic in the stomach] which he had been seized with soon after the battle of Hochkirken. Madame de Loudon, who had remained at Vienna during the whole war, joined him there, and in company with her, he soon

afterwards set out for, and arrived at the place of his destination, on the 24th of February, 1759. The inhabitants of that immense city manifested an extreme curiosity to behold a hero, who after living among them for some time unknown, had left them but two years before, with only the rank of a major, and who after having continually excited their attention during that epoch, had done so much honour to the arms of Austria, and now returned with the cross of Maria Theresa, and the rank of lieutenant field marshal.

The empress gave him the most gracious reception, and entrusted the celebrated baron Van-Swieten, first physician to her majesty, with the re-establishment of his health. M. de Loudon, after his recovery, did not delay to make the necessary preparations in order to return to the army, and his royal mistress, whose greatest pleasure consisted in being generous and grateful, invested him with the grand cross of the order of Maria Theresa; and on purpose to give him a new testimony of the satisfaction which she had received from his services, she elevated him, and all his family, to the dignity of baron in her hereditary states, and in the Roman empire.

The victory over the king of Prussia at Kunnersdorff, in 1759, is entirely to be attributed to Loudon, who was soon after raised by his sovereign to the rank of general-fieldzeug-meister. In the campaign of 1760, he took general Fougue prisoner, and reduced Glatz a short time afterwards, but he was obliged to raise the siege of Breslau, and once more experienced the fickleness of fortune at Kosel. Previous to the attack of Schweidnitz, he harangued his soldiers, and after prohibiting them from pillaging the enemy, he promised them 100,000 crowns by way of indemnification; on this, the Walloon grenadiers unanimously exclaimed—"No! we

will not take any money from our father Loudon! Lead us where honour calls, and we will obey!"

After the conclusion of the war, the empress heaped new favours upon her general, who was the only officer not born a prince, or descended from an illustrious family, that had risen during the late commotions to so high rank, in such a short space of time. Besides a considerable income out of revenues of Bohemia, she purchased for, and presented him with the lordship of Klein-Betschwar, not far from Colin. In imitation of Cincinnatus, M. Loudon, after conquering the enemies of his country, retired to his estate, in order to cultivate and improve it; and having purchased another fief in the neighbourhood, he built a noble castle, and enjoyed all the happiness arising from the repose of a peaceful and happy life.

In 1766, the empress appointed him aulic counsellor of war; in 1767, the immediate nobility of the empire received him as one of their members; and, in 1769, he was appointed commandant-general in Moravia.

At the interview between Frederic and the emperor Joseph, in 1770, the king of Prussia always addressed him by the title of "M. Feld-marechal," although he was not yet invested with that dignity; and when our hero, with his accustomed modesty, wished to place himself at the bottom of the table, that monarch addressed him thus: "Sit next to me, M. de Loudon; I love better to see you by my side, than opposite to me." At his departure he made him a present of two fine horses; and yet, notwithstanding all this, he speaks of him in rather a contemptuous manner in his works.

On the death of Maximilian Joseph, elector of Bavaria, a war seemed to be inevitable between the two preponderant powers in Germany, and in consequence of this,

M. Loudon was raised, on the 27th of February, 1778, to the dignity of field marshal, and placed at the head of an army of 50,000 men; this campaign was extremely interesting to those who study military tactics.

The peace of Teschen having been concluded on the 13th of May, 1779, field marshal Loudon resumed his former occupations, and addicted himself once more to the pleasures of a country life.

Hitherto he had only fought against the enemies of the house of Austria in Germany, but the emperor Joseph called him from his retirement in 1787, on purpose to earn new laurels against the Turks, and the successive capture of Dubitzar, Novi, Berbir, Belgrade, and Orsova, realized all the ideas that had been conceived of his talents.

We shall conclude this article, with an account of the death of this great man, and a short description of his character and person.

During the latter part of his life, he was subject to frequent fits of the gout, to the piles, to the cholera, and to the rheumatism; with the last he was almost regularly attacked every spring and autumn; and in addition to all these, he was often afflicted with a retention of urine.

On the 18th of June, 1790, he returned to the army in Moravia. On the 26th he dined at Gratz with the prince Lichnowski, and having ate some food difficult of digestion, he was seized with a fever that very night, from which he recovered, but having taken too violent exercise in opposition to the express desire of M. Grapforth, he felt himself afflicted with a retention of urine, on the 6th of July, from which, according to his own prediction, he never recovered.

On observing some of the officers who surrounded his bed, in tears, he consoled them by means of many sentiments drawn from the source of true philosophy; he recommended them always to unite religion with warlike courage, and, above all things, to defend their minds from the approaches of atheism, adding, at the same time, these remarkable words: "I owe all the success I have had in this world to my confidence in God, as well as the consolation I shall experience at the moment I appear before him."

On the 10th, the field marshal desired

to receive the sacrament; after this he invited the field marshals Colloredo and Botta to witness his will, and previous to taking leave of them, he desired the former to thank the officers and soldiers of the army for the attachment they had always testified towards him. On perceiving his nephew Alexander kneeling and in tears, by the side of his bed, he spoke to him as follows:

"Arise, be a man, a christian! love God, and never give pain to any of your fellow creatures. Providence has elevated me from the dust, to this high degree of grandeur which I never sought after. During my whole life I have never thought of any thing, but how to fulfil my duty; let this serve you as an example."

He remained in the greatest agonies until the evening of the 14th of July, when he expired.

M. de Loudon was naturally passionate; he was tranquil, misanthropical, and phlegmatic, when every thing went according to his wishes, but warm, ardent, quick and exceedingly hasty when he experienced the least contradiction. His air was serious, cold, severe, reserved,

pensive, reflecting. He was the living image of genius in labour. It was but seldom that a smile of complaisance was seen to un wrinkle his lofty forehead. He was as little acquainted with the real laugh, as Cato. As to his character, he knew how to diversify it wonderfully. Loudon on horseback, and at the head of an army, appeared to be quite another man, and was indeed a complete contrast to Loudon in the country, or even in town. His conduct agreed perfectly with what his cold and reserved physiognomy announced; for he spoke but little, slowly, and with great reserve. From his early youth he constantly avoided the society of women. He was uncommonly timid in the company of women, chaste, and a very good husband. Accustomed to see himself punctually obeyed on the field of battle, by thousands of soldiers, at the least sign indicated by him, he required of his vassals and his servants the same obedience and docility, and he acted with great severity in respect to them; perhaps with much more than ought to have been used to men, not accustomed to military discipline.

BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

AN HISTORICAL AND PICTURESQUE DESCRIPTION OF THE COUNTY OF NICE. *Folio*, 1792.

THE city and county of Nice are, at this time, objects of general attention throughout the adjacent parts of Europe, on account of that portion of the king of Sardinia's dominions having lately reverted to the French; who (our readers will recollect) were formerly in possession of it: but Nice has ever attracted the favourable notice of the neighbouring nations, who have always been invited to a pleasurable as well as a commercial intercourse with it, on account of the singular mildness and salubrity of the climate, and the pleasantness and fertility of the soil. Such advantageous circumstances must, indeed, naturally create the continual resort to this attractive spot, of those who can afford to vary their situation, as health, or amusement, or both united, may prompt them.

The work before us gives a very satisfactory and pleasing description

of this part of the continental territory of his Sardinian majesty: it was very recently under the dominion of that monarch; and in what revolution of time it may be restored to him, or whether he will ever be able to recover it, we must leave to be determined by the fortune of a war which has commenced with the most astonishing vicissitudes; and the consequences of which seem not only to mock all the powers of calculation, but to surpass the utmost boundaries even of conjecture.

The present volume is not only an elegant but a splendid production. The plates consist of twelve views, which are very neatly engraved, and remarkably well coloured; and the romantic and pleasant appearances, which they afford, are admirably adapted to tempt the beholder to visit those scenes themselves, which are the substances whence these beautiful shadows are reflected.

Although the county of Nice be on this side of the mountains, geographers have always considered it as a province of Italy, since

since they have given to this beautiful part of Italy the [river] Var for a western limit, which is also the boundary of the county, and flows into the sea at a league distance from the capital. This province is partly covered by the maritime Alps; and is bordered on the east by Piedmont, and the states of Genoa; on the south by the Mediterranean; on the west by the Var; and on the north by Dauphiny. Its length is about twenty leagues of the country, which make about thirty-six English miles; its breadth is ten leagues; and its population is about 120,000 souls.

The town [city] of Nice is the capital, and the seat of the senate, the bishopric, and government. It has become, within these few years, a delightful abode, by the number of strangers who assemble there in the winter, either to re-establish their health, or to enjoy the mildness of the climate, and the beauty of the country, where an unceasing verdure presents eternal spring.

The town is situated on the sea shore, and is backed by a rock entirely insulated, on which was formerly a castle, much esteemed for its position; but it was destroyed in the year 1706, by Marechal Berwick, the garrison being too thin to defend the extent of the works. There is a distinction between the old and the new town; this last is regular, the houses are well built, and the streets are wide. Its position is by the side of the sea, and is terminated, on one side, by a charming terrace, which serves for a promenade.

Any person may live peaceably in this province, without fear of being troubled on points of faith, provided they conduct themselves with decorum. The town has three suburbs:

1st, That of St. John, which conducts to Cimier, &c. The promenades this way are very delightful, and may be enjoyed in a carriage.

2d, That of the Poudriere.

3d, That of the Croix de Marbre, or Marble Cross. This suburb is new, and the English almost always lodge in it, being very near the town. The houses are commodious, facing, on one side, the great road which leads to France, and on the other, a fine garden, with a prospect of the sea. All the houses are separate from each other; the company hire them for the season, i. e. from October till May. Apartments may be had from 15 to 250 louis. The proprietors commonly furnish linen, plate, &c. There are also in the town very large and commodious houses, as well as the new road which is open from the town to the port, by cutting that part of the rock which inclined toward the sea. The situation is delightful, and warmest in winter, being entirely covered from the north wind, and quite open to the south.

The company is brilliant at Nice,—and the amusements of the carnival are, in proportion to the size of the town, as lively as in any of the great ones in France. There is always an Italian opera, a concert, and masked ball, alternately; and the company play rather high.—

It is impossible to find a happier climate than Nice, both for summer and winter. Reaumur's thermometer, in 1781, never fell more than three degrees below the freezing point; and that only for two days; while at Geneva it fell ten; and in the course of the winter of 1785, it only fell two degrees, while at Geneva it fell fifteen. The month of May is rarely so fine in France, as February at Nice. The summer is not so hot as might be expected. The thermometer never rises more than twenty-four degrees above temperate in the shade; and there is always an agreeable sea-breeze from ten in the morning till sun-set, when the land breeze comes on.—There are three chains of graduated mountains, the last of which confound their summits with the Alps; and to this triple rampart is owing the mild temperature so sensibly different from the neighbouring parts.

The cultivation of the ground is as rich as can be desired. There are alternately rows of corn and beans, separated by vines attached to different fruit-trees, the almond and fig; so that the earth being incessantly cultivated, and covered with trees, olive, orange, cedar, pomegranate, laurel, and myrtle, causes the constant appearance of spring, and forms a fine contrast with the summits of the Alps, in the back-ground, covered with snow.

We should have remarked, in speaking of the city of Nice, that the author, enumerating the vast improvements lately made, both in and out of the town, observes, that those travellers who have not been there within the last twenty years, would hardly know it again; so great are the alterations!

We have here, likewise, some account of the neighbouring port of Villa Franca, remarkable for its capaciousness. The road is said to be one of the finest in Europe. An hundred ships of the line, we are told, may commodiously ride in it. A light-house, properly situated, serves to guide the ships that are navigating this sea. The town is but two miles distant from Nice, and contains 3,600 inhabitants.

We omit the particulars here given

given of the antiquities of this country—the state of learning—commercial affairs—prices of provisions—modes of travelling, &c. &c. The writer's representations agree, in the most material points, with the account of this province which is lately given by Mr. Arthur Young, in his travels through France and Italy.

To illustrate the neatly-coloured engravings, which have very much the appearance of drawings, an explanation is given of the subject of each distinct view: we have already mentioned the number of the plates. On the whole, we have been agreeably entertained, and not a little informed, by this elegant publication. Were peace restored, and the agitated bosom of Europe re-composed, we should be strongly tempted to make a winter's trip to the pleasant and healthy spot, so advantageously exhibited in this picturesque detail.

THE NATURE, EXTENT, AND PROVINCE OF HUMAN REASON, CONSIDERED. 12mo. London, 1792.

A work dedicated to the bishop of St. David's, and in which seven persons are concerned, for no less a number have subscribed, by their initials, to the dedication, naturally attracts attention. Convinced that the reviewers would treat them as they deserve, our seven champions, whoever they are, think proper to wrap themselves up in the robe of faith, which, in the words of the bishop of St. David's, they tell us "is the distinct gift of God."

In the first chapter the authors proceed to enquire "whether there be any thing in the *nature* and *condition* of man to *oblige* him to think that he is not to admit any doctrines or institutions as revealed from God, but such as his own reason can prove to be necessary from the nature of things;" and, in chap. II. that from the state and relation between God and man, that human reason cannot possibly be a compe-

tent judge of the fitness and reasonableness of God's proceedings with mankind, either as to the *time* or *matter*, or *manner* of any external revelation. In the third chapter, they proceed to shew how far human reason is enabled to judge of the reasonableness, truth, and certainty of divine revelation. In the fourth, of the state and nature of reason as it is in man; and in the fifth and last, they proceed to shew that all the mutability of our tempers, the disorders of our passions, the corruption of our hearts, are precisely the mutability, disorders, corruption, &c. of human reason.

Such are the heads of this treatise, which is laboured by our authors with as much ingenuity as men, who give up the use of their reason in matters of the utmost importance, can be supposed capable of. They conclude thus:

First, If reason be, as above represented, the universal agent; if all the difference among men, either in speculation or practice, be only such a difference as reason makes, then nothing can be more extravagant, than to affirm any thing concerning the degree of perfection or imperfection of reason, as common to man. It is as wild and romantic, as to pretend to state the measure of folly and wisdom, of fear and courage, of pride and humility, of good humour and ill humour, common to mankind: for as these states of the mind are only so many different states of reason, so no uncertainty belongs to them, but what, in the same degree, belongs to reason.

Secondly, Granting that all matters of religion must be agreeable to right unprejudiced reason; yet this could be no ground for receiving nothing in religion, but what human reason could prove to be necessary; for human reason is no more right unprejudiced reason, than a sinner is sinless, or a man an angel.

Granting again, that a man may go a great way towards rectifying his reason, and laying aside its prejudices; yet no particular man can be a better judge of the rectitude of his own reason, than he is of the rectitude of his own self-love, the sagacity of his own understanding, the brightness of his own parts, the justness of his own eloquence, and the depth of his own judgment.

For there is nothing to deceive him in self-love, in the opinion of his own merit,

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wit, judgment and eloquence, but what has the same power to deceive him, in the opinion of his own reason. And, if it be the fate of most sects to be fondest of their ugliest brats, none seem so inevitably exposed to this fatality, as those, whose religion is to have no form, but such as it receives from their own hearts.

Thirdly, A man that has his religion to chuse, and with this previous privilege, that he need not allow any thing to be matter of religion, but what his own reason can prove to be so, is in as fair a way to be governed by his passions, as he that has his condition of life to chuse, with the liberty of taking that, which his own reason directs him to.

Does any one suppose now, that nothing but right reason would direct him in the choice of his condition? Or that he would make the better choice, because he proceeded upon this maxim, that nothing could be right, but that which was agreeable to his own reason? Or that his temper, his prejudices, his self-love, his passions, his partiality, would have no influence upon his choice, because he had resigned himself up to his own reason.

For as our choice of a condition of life is not a matter of speculation, but of good and evil; so however it is recommended to our reason, it chiefly excites our passions; and our choice will be just as reasonable, as our tempers and passions are. And he, who is made the most positive of the sufficiency of his own reason, will be the most likely to be governed by the blindness of his own passions.

Now it is just the same in the choice of a religion, as in the choice of a condition of life: as it is not a matter of speculation, but of good and evil: so, if it be left to be stated and determined by our own reason, it rather appeals to our tempers, than employs our reason; and to resign ourselves up to our own reason, to tell us what ought or not to be a matter of religion, is only resigning ourselves up to our tempers to take what we like, and to refuse what we dislike in religion.

For, it is not only natural and easy for him, who believes that nothing can be a part of religion, but what his reason can prove necessary to be so, to take that to be fully proved, which is only mightily liked; and all that to be entirely contrary to reason, which is only vastly contrary to his tempers; this, I say, is not only natural and easy to happen, but scarce possible to be avoided.

In a word; when self-love is a proper arbitrator betwixt a man and his adversary; when revenge is a just judge of meekness; when pride is a true lover of humility, when falsehood is a teacher of truth; when lust is a fast friend of chastity; when the flesh leads to the spirit; when sensuality

delights in self-denial; when partiality is a promoter of equity; when the palate can taste the difference between sin and holiness; when the hand can feel the truth of a proposition, then may human reason be a proper arbitrator between God and man; the sole, final, just judge of all that ought, or ought not to be matter of a holy, divine, and heavenly religion.—

Again: if this be the state of reason, as has been fully proved; if all we believe or disbelieve, love or hate, chuse or refuse; if all that is wise or absurd, holy or profane, glorious or shameful, in thought, word, or deed, be to be imputed to it; then, it is as gross an absurdity to talk of the perfection of human reason, as, of the unspotted holiness of human life, the absolute purity of human love, the immutable justice of human hatred, and the infallibility of human conjectures.

Lastly, To pretend that our reason is too perfect to be governed by any thing but its own light, is the same extravagance, as to pretend, that our love is too pure to be governed by any thing but its own inclinations, our hatred too just to be governed by any thing but its own motions. For, if all that is base and criminal in love, all that is unjust and wicked in hatred, be strictly and solely to be imputed to our reason; then, no perfection can be ascribed to our reason, but such as is to be ascribed to our love and hatred.

PHILOSOPHICAL DISSERTATIONS
ON THE GREEKS. *Translated*
from the French of M. Pauw. 2 Vol.
8vo. 1792.

M. Pauw is well known to the learned world for his dissertations on the Americans, Chinese, and Egyptians, the first of which has been severely censured; whether justly or no, we will not pretend to determine. In this work also, many things will be found not strictly conformable to the general idea entertained of those celebrated nations which peopled ancient Greece.

After some general observations on the Athenians, of which people our author first treats, he gives a general description of the country they inhabited, of their taste for rural life, of their political institutions, their manners and customs, luxury, commerce, revenue, &c. all which are treated of at large in the first volume. The second begins with

with the state of civilization among them; the fine arts, government, and religion. From whence our author proceeds to treat of the Lacedæmonians; to which, being the two principal nations of Greece, he chiefly confines his disquisitions.

His reasons for not entering further into the character of the other nations of Greece, appears from the following extract from his preliminary discourse.

It must not be imagined, that all the inhabitants of ancient Greece have, without restriction, an equal right to our gratitude, or an indiscriminate title to our praise. Not less than four nations existed among them who never did any thing for posterity, and were seen passing, like fugitive shadows on the surface of the earth, without leaving the smallest monument of genius behind them.

The Lacedæmonians, in the first place, so far from ever contributing to the progress of science, or the perfection of any one art, conceived glory to consist solely in amassing spoils amidst devastation and carnage. Declared enemies to the repose of Greece, they counted peace in the number of public calamities, and only terminated one war to commence another; until at length they were consumed by the very flames they themselves had kindled.

Another nation equally dangerous with the Lacedæmonians, and not less ignorant, anciently inhabited Ætolia. The language of the Greeks was indeed spoken there, but the Ætolians had the manners of barbarians; and such atrocity of character, that they were compared to beasts of prey, marked with the human form. In some of their cantons, the flesh of animals was eaten raw; and in all their expeditions they discovered the rapacity of robbers. We know among their crimes of more than fifty towns destroyed, and as many temples plundered, without excepting the famous oracle of Dodona, which neither a lawless banditti, nor the most profane among the Greeks, had ever before dared to violate.

In a word, without laws, and destitute of respect either human or divine, the Ætolians were at once terrible to others, on account of their ferocity, and destructive to themselves, from a spirit of sedition, and an instinct, as it were, for anarchy. The Romans alone were able to subdue them; and then these formidable barbarians had to encounter other ravagers more powerful than themselves.

The Thessalians likewise never offered the smallest incense in the temple of genius, nor on the altar of the arts. The

country they inhabited was fertile, and protected in such a manner by a chain of lofty mountains, that nothing would have been easier than to banish discord, and secure uninterrupted tranquillity. But those fine valleys, destined in appearance for the dwellings of peace, were the very center of political confusion; they passed incessantly from oppression to independence, and from independence to oppression. No sooner were the great tyrants overthrown, than the smaller sprang out of their ashes; and instead of one they had a thousand masters, without the advantage of a single good law.

Nothing was more pernicious to the Thessalians than their pride and inconceivable presumption. Ridiculously inflated with some romantic genealogies, they thought always of their nobility, and never of their ignorance. Agriculture was with them a disgraceful occupation, consigned to the vilest of their slaves; and the fine arts, in common with those purely mechanical, were considered capable of tarnishing the lustre of families, and even the glory of the nation. With such principles and maxims their darkness became impenetrable to any ray of public or private duty. None would obey, and no one knew how to command; while every species of legislation vanished before their incorrigible turbulence and vanity. This corruption of manners and character will be displayed more amply in treating of the nobility of the Greeks in general; and then it will appear that their pretended grandeur had its only source in a state of absolute slavery.

To these instances must be joined the inhabitants of Arcadia, who appeared utterly incapable of producing any thing of consequence, towards hastening the progress of light on the horizon of Greece. They were indeed much superior to the Lacedæmonians and Ætolians in their moral qualities, and innate goodness of heart; but the nature of an ungrateful soil, mountainous and little fit for cultivation, forced them to embrace a pastoral life; which in no corner of the world has ever been favourable to civilization, or the arts; because it degenerates into a state of wandering and idleness, where the wants are few, and the desires easily gratified. Yet the mind of man, born the enemy of labour and constraint, becomes so much attached to this peaceful manner of living in open air, that it is without comparison more difficult to fix a race of shepherds, than a nation accustomed to the chase.

To give our readers an idea of the work, we shall select his chapter on the characteristics of the different cantons of Attica.

Aristotle, whose whole life was spent in making observations, does not agree in many circumstances with his scholars; and his sentiments are very different from those of Dicaearchus, on the progress of civilization among the cantons of Attica.

Aristotle pretends, that whatever might be the pretensions of the Athenians with regard to politeness and urbanity, they were much inferior to the inhabitants of Piræus, whose manners, polished by the continual resort of strangers, had assumed a tone of grandeur and nobility. The merchants, travellers, and navigators, who arrived at this famous port, actuated by a spirit of emulation, were rivals in politeness, because they wished to avoid being supposed barbarians, or descendants of a savage people. Plato, on this account, laid the scene of his favourite dialogues at Piræus, and supposes Socrates to be detained there by the refined and obliging manners of Cephalus, a merchant, who was father to the orator Lysias. It was in the house of this venerable man that the conversation turned intensely on the best of all possible governments, and gave rise, in this manner, to the republic of Plato, if ever such an edifice existed on earth. Demosthenes likewise preferred the manners of Piræus to those of the capital; but Dicaearchus differed from that opinion, although it was supported by the sentiments of his master. He maintained that both urbanity and veracity were confined within the walls of Athens; and he considered the other inhabitants of Attica as dangerous men, experienced in calumny and addicted to deceit.

Ever since the most remote periods, some of the cantons had been remarkable for certain vices, or mal-practices so peculiar to themselves, that they were considered as a kind of national physiognomy.

The inhabitants of Acharnæ were reputed rough and brutal; those of Prospaltis were famous litigators, or indefatigable pleaders who delighted in law-suits; and at Potamos, the love of money was so powerful, that strangers, by employing this means, found no difficulty in having their names inscribed on the list of citizens.

Covetousness was the ruling passion at Cropsia, and Tythras; while Aexone and Gephyra were notorious for all such injurious or obscene expressions as are implied in the Greek word *caecology*. The children in Colyttus acquired the use of speech sooner than all others, because their fathers were the greatest babblers in Greece; and the Athenians, in general, employed more words in one day, than the Lacedæmonians in the four seasons.

Diomeia pretended to be superior to all the cantons in genius and penetration; and Athenæus informs us that a tribunal of sixty judges was established there, to

decide on the essence of jests and good sayings. All witticisms, rejected by these men, were supposed to trespass against some rules of art; and as the words of Pythagoras were the great oath of his disciples, in the same manner did the people at Diomeia swear by the decisions of their academy. Instead of this excessive good humour, it was customary at Sphettos to reply with a certain degree of harshness, which instead of containing attic salt, was rather the art of turning delicious wines into acids.

Near Cephalus, in the neighbourhood of mount Hymettus, was a fountain sacred to love, where all the sick had promises, and no one ever obtained relief. Doctor Chandler, in his travels through Greece, informs us, that the young women of Athens perform still an annual pilgrimage to this source, which belongs now to a monastery of Caloyers. These greatest of all impostors have added their own subtleties to those of the ancient charlatans of Cephalus, who entertained strangers with many wonderful traditions concerning the adventures of their founder; when carried off by Aurora, said they, he continued to fight for a mortal in the arms of a goddess. Probably the ancient shepherds of Attica, while guarding their flocks, fabricated such stories for amusement. In the huts of the negroes of Senegal, and under the tents of the wandering Arabs, they are invented still, and seem calculated for pastoral manners in the same degree that romance is adapted to civil life. Unfortunately however these fables in general passed with the Athenians for historical facts; and by this means all their mountains became celebrated, and every river famous.

All the inhabitants of Cydathenæa pretended to be noble; in the same manner that at Rennes the chairmen are descended from the first barons of Brittany. Andocides, the orator, who belonged to this illustrious canton, ventured to assert, before the whole republic, that his family was the most ancient of Athens; and he added, that his house had never been shut against the poor, and was always an asylum for the unfortunate. This however was carrying his boasts too far; for in reality no greater cheat or more cunning intriguer ever appeared in Greece, if we except Lysander, the Lacedæmonian.

The people of Corydalæ, for the most part, subsisted by smuggling, at the expense of the Athenian commerce, and could never be restrained from such practices. At Elutis every art was employed to deprive the superstitious of their money, and even of their clothes: Brauron was the principal scene of those orgies and bacchanalia, which were so unfavourable to virtue; and Sciron afforded exactly such a receptacle for gamblers and prostitutes,

as that which in our days has been established in the forest of Liege.

The Icarians, who called themselves the inventors of comedy, were considered as a dangerous race during the bacchanalia; and they were accused of having shed the blood of him who first introduced the vine into their country.

Megara was inhabited by the worst of Greeks, and the most despicable of mortals; they had even been declared such by an oracle of Apollo, which is still found in the Scholia of Theocritus. This however may be suspected as a calumny of the Athenians, who carried national hatred to a greater degree against the Megareans than was ever known among the people speaking the same language. Time, which changes almost every thing, could not weaken an animosity occasioned at first by the revolt of the people of Megara. They erected themselves into an independent state, little more extensive than that of Saint Marino; but so much superior in power, that they could never afterwards be reduced to their former subjection. One circumstance attending this was highly prejudicial to the Athenians; for when any person either wished to defraud his creditors, or had committed some atrocious crime, he fled to Megara, and received effectual protection. It is probable that the vices and perverse disposition of so many fugitives were communicated to their protectors, who have been seldom mentioned in history with encomiums.

But if all these little states had particular blemishes, they possessed also many virtues; and Dicaearchus himself praises that humanity and politeness, which he experienced on all the great roads of Attica. He proceeds afterwards to assure us, that no corner of the world presents more attractions than Athens, either for the rich, or those who are absolutely without money. The opulent can procure every thing, continues he, and the indigent are entertained with so many feasts, spectacles, games, and other amusements, that they never reflect on their situation.

Such was that sublime effort of Athenian policy, hitherto disregarded in our present military governments, where the sadness of the inhabitants is only equalled by their wretchedness and poverty. Tossed amidst continued vexations, they seem exposed on a wreck, where the song of the mariner has ceased, and the music of the passengers is forgotten; but this crisis, instead of being permanent, must at length produce a catastrophe which will confound both sovereigns and subjects.

When the Athenians had neither fleets, armies, admirals, nor generals, they possessed the greatest resources in their industry, gaiety, and commerce. The vivacity of their genius enabled them to see

things in a different light from other people; and their rivers as well as mountains were rendered famous by numerous mythological events. Such things, regarded in our eyes as trifling, were to them exceedingly interesting. They believed firmly, that the muses and nymphs performed dances along the banks of the Ilissus, which they considered as the finest river in the world, although, in fact, it is only a torrent; and nothing but moss can grow on its borders.

With regard to the Cephissus, says Euripides, nothing is more certain than that Venus repaired thither, frequently, to regale herself with its waters. In commemoration of this, continues he, that goddess, ever grateful, soothes the Athenians with pure zephyrs, and the breath of attending loves, crowned with the roses of Paphos.

Strangers, on their arrival in Attica, were entertained with such a series of miracles and prodigies, of which they could discover no trace, that they fancied themselves among an enchanted people. At length they were forced, necessarily, either to become enthusiasts themselves, or they grew exceedingly disgusted with the enthusiasm of the Athenians.

We shall confine ourselves to these extracts at present, and shall hereafter select some other parts of the work for the amusement of our readers; and shall conclude with observing, that we have perused it with pleasure, and think the translator has done justice to his original.

THE NATURAL HISTORY OF BIRDS.

From the French of the Count de Buffon. 9 Vols. 8vo.

M. de Buffon's natural history of quadrupeds was translated and published in 1781, in eight vols. 8vo. We have now his history of birds, to which the translator has not put his name. The high character of our author as a naturalist is too well established to need any eulogium; we shall, therefore, only speak of this work as a translation, which seems to be done with care; but the plates which accompany it are by no means equal to the work: they are contemptible.

The translator, in his preface, says, "Few writers have been more justly admired for originality, and

grandeur of conception, than the celebrated Comte de Buffon. It was his lively eloquence that first rescued natural history from barbarism, and rendered it an engaging and popular study. With concern and indignation he beheld the fairest of all the sciences cramped by artificial systems, encumbered by a coarse and obscure jargon, and disfigured by credulity and ignorance. He was determined to restore and decorate the fabric. Royal munificence happily seconded his views; and he was entrusted with the direction of the finest cabinet in Europe. His lofty genius burst from the shackles of method; he caught with ardour the varied magnificence of Nature's plan; and, with a masterly pencil, dipt in rich and glowing colours, he traced the animated picture. His elegant and spirited diction adorns whatever subject he treats; his various and extensive learning at once pleases and instructs. His graceful turn of sentiments engages our affections; the sublimity of his descriptions commands our admiration; and if the exuberance of his fancy has sometimes laid him open to censure, we are disposed to overlook his errors for the brilliancy of his composition.

"His Theory of the Earth was first published in 1744; his History of Man soon followed; but that of Quadrupeds was not completed till 1767. The History of Birds was next to be undertaken, a task attended with peculiar difficulties. The species of birds are at least ten times more numerous than those of quadrupeds, and are subject to endless varieties. Their mode of life exposes them to the immediate influence of the seasons; in a large proportion of them the migrations to remote climates produce important alterations on their external appearance; and their hot temperament sometimes perverts their instincts, and gives birth to unnatural progeny that serve to increase the

confusion. The dispositions and æconomy of birds are in a great measure removed from observation; and our knowledge, with regard to them, is necessarily scanty and imperfect. But M. de Buffon was not to be deterred by the difficulty and extent of the undertaking. The correspondents of the king's cabinet continued to transmit numerous communications, and specimens from all parts of the world. Above eighty artists were under the direction of the younger M. Daubenton, employed five years in the drawing, engraving, and colouring, of upwards of a thousand birds. But the commencement of the work which these were intended to illustrate was delayed two years, by reason of a severe and tedious indisposition, which during that space afflicted the excellent naturalist. And after he had recovered his health, he reflected that at his advanced period of life he could not reasonably expect to be able to accomplish the history of birds, and also that of minerals, in which he had already made some advances. He judged it expedient therefore to have recourse to the assistance of his friends; and he was peculiarly fortunate in the choice of the learned and eloquent M. Gueneau de Montbeillard, who cheerfully undertook the laborious task, and composed the greatest part of the two first volumes of the History of Birds, which appeared in 1771, under the name, however, of M. de Buffon. In his complexion of thought and mode of expression, M. de Montbeillard followed so closely his illustrious associate, that the public could not perceive any change. It was now proper to throw off the mask; and in the publication of the four subsequent volumes, each author prefixed his name to his own articles. The third volume was nearly printed when new assistance was received from the communications of James Bruce, Esq. of Kinross. That accomplished and adventurous traveller

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veller in his return from Abyssinia passed some days with M. de Buffon at Paris. The Comte was filled with admiration on seeing the numerous and elegant drawings which Mr. Bruce had made of natural objects; and on several occasions he mentions the explorer of the source of the Nile in terms the most flattering and respectful. After the publication of the sixth volume in 1781, M. de Montbeillard was desirous of devoting the whole of his leisure in composing the History of Insects, which had become his favourite study. The three remaining volumes were therefore written by M. de Buffon himself; though he acknowledges that the Abbé Bexon had collected the nomenclature, formed most of the descriptions, and communicated several important hints. The work was completed in 1783; and as only a few copies of the illuminated plates were on sale, and these extremely costly, a small set of engravings were made to accommodate ordinary purchasers. M. de Buffon had about the same time finished his History of Minerals. He now entertained views of composing the History of Vegetables, in which delightful subject his ingenuity, his taste, and his erudition, eminently qualified him to shine; but unfortunately for the public the project was defeated by the death of that great man on the 16th of April, 1788."

To give those readers, who are unacquainted with M. Buffon's writings, a just idea of his manner of treating his subjects, we shall insert his division under the head *Birds of Prey*.

All the birds almost might merit this appellation, since by far the greater number search for insects, worms, and other small creatures; but I shall confine it to those which subsist on flesh, and wage perpetual war against the other winged tribes. On comparison, I find that they are much less numerous than the ravenous quadrupeds. The family of the lions, the tigers, the panthers, the ounces, the leopards, the hunting cats, the jaguars, the cougars, the Mexican

cats, the margays, and the wild or domestic cats: that of the dogs, the jackals, the wolves, the foxes, and the arctic foxes: the more numerous tribes of the hyænas, the civets, the oriental civets, the dwarf civets, the Madagascar pole-cats: the still more numerous tribes of the pole-cats, the martens, the fitchews, the skunks, the ferrets, Guinea weasels, the ermines, the common weasels, the sables, the ichneumons, the Brazilian weasels, the gluttons, the pekans, the minks, the foulliks; the opossums, the mar-mice, the Mexican opossums, the woolly jerboas, the Surinam opossums: that of the rufous, red, and common bats: to these we may add the whole family of the rats, which being too weak to attack other animals, prey on each other; all these rapacious quadrupeds exceed greatly in number the eagles, the vultures, the sparrow hawks, the falcons, the jer-falcons, the kites, the buzzards, the kestrels, the merlins, the owls, the shrikes, and the crows, which are prone to rapine: and many of these, such as the kites, the buzzards, and the crows, prefer carrion to fresh prey. In short, there is only a fifteenth part of the birds carnivorous, while of the quadrupeds more than a third come under that designation.

The birds of prey being much fewer and weaker than the rapacious quadrupeds, commit less depredation on land; but, as if tyranny never relinquished its claims, whole tribes inhabit the ocean, and subsist by their ravages. Of the quadrupeds, scarce any, except the beavers, the otters, the seals, and the sea-horses, live on fish; yet multitudes of birds derive their support entirely from that source. We have therefore to divide the birds of prey into two classes, corresponding to the elements of air and water, which are the scenes of their havocks. Those which war against the finny race are provided with a straight pointed bill; their nails are slender, their toes webbed, and their legs bent backwards. Those, on the contrary, which riot in carnage at land, and which are properly the subject of this article, are furnished with talons and with a short curved bill; their toes are parted, and without membranes; their legs are strong, and generally covered by the feathers of the thighs; their nails large and hooked.

We shall for the present set aside also the nocturnal birds of prey, and adopt what appears to be the most natural order in treating of those which commit their ravages during the day. We shall begin with the eagles, the vultures, the kites, and the buzzards; then the hawks, the jer-falcons, and falcons; and close with the merlins and the shrikes. Many of these include a great number of species and of permanent families produced by the influence of climate; and with each we shall

shall range the kindred foreign birds. In this way we shall delineate not only those of Europe, but also all those which inhabit remote countries, whether described by authors, or procured by our correspondence.

There is a singular property common to all the birds of prey, but of which it would be difficult to assign the cause; that the female is stronger, and a third larger than the male; exactly the reverse to what obtains in the quadrupeds, and even in other birds. In fishes and insects, the female is indeed larger than the male: this is owing to the immense number of eggs which swell their bodies. But this reason will not apply in the case of birds. In those which are the most prolific, such as the domestic poultry, the ducks, turkeys, pheasants, partridges, and quails, the hen lays eighteen or twenty eggs, and yet is smaller than the cock.

All the birds of rapine fly in a lofty course, their wings and legs are strong, their flight exceedingly quick, their head thick, their tongue fleshy, their stomach single and membranous, their intestines narrower and shorter than in other birds; they prefer the solitary tracts, the desert mountains, and they commonly breed in crags, or on the tallest trees. Many species inhabit both continents, and some appear to have no fixed abode. The general characters are, that their bill is hooked, and that they have four toes on each foot, all of which are distinctly parted. But the eagle's head is covered with feathers, which distinguishes it from the vulture, whose head is naked, and only shaded with slight down: and both these are discriminated from the hawks, the buzzards, the kites, and the falcons, by an obvious property; for their bill continues straight to a certain distance before it bends, but in the latter it assumes its curve at the origin.

The birds of prey are not so prolific as other birds. It is strange that Linnæus should assert that they lay about four eggs: for there are some, such as the common and sea-eagles, which have only two; and others, as the kestrel and merlin, that have seven. In birds, as in quadrupeds, the general law obtains, that the multiplication is inversely as the bulk. There are some apparent exceptions to this rule, pigeons for instance; but the smallness of

the hatch will be found to be compensated by its frequent repetition.

The birds of prey are more obdurate and ferocious than other birds. They are not only intractable, but have the unnatural propensity to drive their tender brood from the nest. Accustomed continually to scenes of carnage, and torn by angry passions, they contract a stern cruel disposition; all the softer feelings are eradicated, and maternal attachment itself is blunted. She regards not the imploring calls of her helpless young, but when straitened for food, she rudely thrusts them upon the world, or murders them in a transport of fury.

This obdurate selfish temper produces in the birds of prey, as well as the carnivorous quadrupeds, another effect. They never associate together, but, like robbers, lead a roving solitary life. Lust indeed draws together the male and female, and, as they can mutually assist in the pursuit of prey, they seldom separate even after the breeding season. But the family never coalesces, and the larger kinds, such as the eagle, will not suffer their young to be rivals, but expel them from their domain: whereas, all birds and quadrupeds which subsist on the fruits of the earth, live in harmony with their offspring, or assemble joyously in numerous troops.

Before we proceed to the detail of facts, we cannot avoid making some remarks on the common methods of classification. The nomenclator strives to describe the colours of the plumage with minute precision; he enumerates their disposition, all the shades, the spots, the bars, the stripes, the lines; and if a bird does not come under the description which he has thus formed he regards it as a different species. But all animals change their early garb and complexion; and the tints of the rapacious birds are wonderfully altered by the first moulting. A second considerable one succeeds, and this is often followed by a third; so that a person who should judge entirely from the colours, would imagine that a bird of six months old, another of the same kind of eighteen months, and another of two years and a half, belonged to three different species. But the plumage is also affected by various other causes; by difference of sex, of age, and of climate; and therefore the colours can never afford any permanent distinction.

POLITICAL REGISTER.

Parliamentary Debates, continued.

IN the House of Lords, on Tuesday, April 9, a message was brought from the king by Lord Grenville, to request their lordships'

concurrence to empower his majesty by a vote of credit, to raise further supplies to support the exigencies and necessities of the war, which was agreed to without a division.

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The House of Commons proceeded in the traitorous correspondence bill, and many alterations were made. In a committee thereon, on the 8th of April, upon the clause being read, empowering the trial of offences committed in any part of the realm, to be held in the county of Middlesex, Mr. Adam moved, as an amendment, the omission of such power, contending that it was contrary to the principles of the administration of justice, which went to carry justice to every man's door. His amendment was to confine the trial to the county in which the offence should be committed.

The Solicitor-General replied, that it was a provision usual in modern cases of treason, and the amendment was negatived.

Upon the clause being read for proceeding to trial of offenders against the act, as against the counterfeiters of the king's coin, Mr. Adam again rose, and after urging several reasons for extending to all persons prosecuted for treason, under the present bill, the benefits allowed to defendants charged with treason, by the act of the 7th of William III. and by the act of the 7th of Anne, moved as an amendment, the adding of those benefits to the clause. A conversation ensued, in which the amendment was supported by Mr. Fox, and opposed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer and the Attorney-General; and a division taking place, the amendment was negatived—Ayes 32, Noes 110—Majority for the original clause 78.

April 9, the Chancellor of the Exchequer presented a message from his majesty, the substance of which was, that his majesty relied on the zeal and affection of the House to make provision for such extraordinary and unforeseen expences as may necessarily be incurred in taking such measures as the exigencies of affairs may require in the course of the ensuing campaign. He said that he thought it proper to apprise the house, that the message from his ma-

jesty, just read, was for the purpose of bringing before the house in the most parliamentary way the demand of the 1,500,000*l.* which he at the time of opening the budget stated to the committee of ways and means as the sum likely (upon the best calculation that the nature of the case would admit) to enable government to take effectual steps against the common enemy in the course of the campaign. He then moved, that the message should be referred to a committee of the whole house on the morrow, which was ordered accordingly.

On the order for the third reading of the treasonable intercourse bill being read, Mr. Curwen moved, that the counsel attending on behalf of certain merchants in the American trade against the bill should be called in, which being ordered, Mr. Pigott was heard a considerable time against the bill; after the counsel had withdrawn, a clause was moved, which went to enact, that American corn, under certain restrictions, should be insurable; which was negatived without a division.

The bill was then read a third time; and on the question being put for passing the same, several members spoke for and against it, when the house divided—Ayes 154, Noes 53. The bill was then passed, and ordered to the lords for their concurrence.

Wednesday, April 10, the house resolved itself into a committee, to take into consideration his majesty's message; when Mr. Pitt moved, that it be the opinion of the committee, that a sum not less than 1,500,000*l.* should be voted to his majesty, for defraying the expences of the current year; and that the same be raised either by loan or exchequer bills. Agreed to.

The house proceeded to debate on the motion for leave to bring in a bill to disfranchise certain electors at Stockbridge, for corrupt practices at the election of members to serve in parliament for that borough, when Mr.

Mr. Powys did not conceive that the report of the committee appointed to try the merits of the Stockbridge election contained sufficient evidence to warrant the introduction of such a bill.

Mr. Fox adverted to his conduct on the Shoreham election. At that period he opposed the disfranchisement of the Shoreham electors. He meant also to oppose the present disfranchisement, because the house were not warranted to disfranchise the electors of Stockbridge till evidence were produced before them. They were not warranted in regulating their conduct by the evidence before the committee. At the same time he had no objection to entertain the bill, in the present stage, if it should be understood that witnesses were to be examined at the bar of the house. The subject had very properly been divided into two bills, the one for disfranchising the electors of Stockbridge, the other for throwing the election into the hundred.

Mr. Hufsey considered the motion in the nature of an *ex post facto* law. For this reason he moved, that the debate should be adjourned to that day three months.

After some further debate, the house divided on the original question, when the numbers were, for leave to bring in the bill 19, against it 18.

Thursday, April 11, Mr. Gascoyne presented a petition from the corporation of Liverpool, for leave for a bill to enable them to issue small notes, on the security of their estates, for the purpose of supporting the commercial credit of the said town. The Chancellor of the Exchequer took occasion to observe, that the present case may be eventually of considerable importance, and was of such a nature as to require immediate steps to be taken; for which purpose, he wished that gentlemen would make up their minds as to the general substance of the affair as soon as possible. He

complimented the corporation on their very patriotic and laudable conduct in thus stepping forward to rescue the commercial interest of that city, which had, on account of some recent and unexpected circumstances, suffered in the instances of a few houses, that otherwise were not only able to answer every demand on them, but would possess a considerable property when these demands were liquidated. Leave was given accordingly.

Lord Arden presented the report of the Great Grimby election committee, which was of considerable length; and after going much into detail on the rights of election, it stated, that the election, in case of the petitioners, Messrs. Wood and Pole, as in that of the sitting members, Messrs. Harrison and North, was perfectly null and void; and that Mr. Pole had been, through agents, guilty of bribery at the said election. The report was received, and new writs of election ordered for the said borough in consequence.

April 18. in the House of Lords, Lord Walsingham presented a petition from Mr. Hastings, stating, that the evidence he meant to produce relative to that part of the charge, now under discussion, was almost finished, and that his counsel would be as brief as the circumstances would possibly admit, in summing the heads of evidence he had offered to the consideration of their lordships, for which reason he most humbly hoped they would indulge him with their attendance in the Hall on Saturday next.—Ordered, that the petition do lie on the table.

On Tuesday, April 16, in the House of Commons, Mr. Sheridan said that he had read with astonishment, in the public prints, a paper, dated April the 5th, and signed by Louis C. de Starhemberg, and dated from the Hague. He wished to know from his majesty's ministers, if that paper was authentic, and if they had received an official document to the same effect.

Mr.

Mr. Pitt replied, that a paper had been received from Lord Auckland, but he could not answer whether or not it was precisely similar to that which the honourable gentleman had read in the public prints. He expressed a desire to be informed as to the object of Mr. Sheridan in calling for the paper.

Mr. Sheridan said that if it was *bona fide* the same as that which had appeared in the newspapers, it was the most singular that he ever had read. It was fraught, in his mind, with sentiments diametrically opposite to those avowed by his majesty's ministers in this country. It was such as Lord Auckland was not justified to sanction, in his official capacity. It was such as would induce him to move, that Lord Auckland be dismissed from his majesty's service, and this motion he would follow up with another, that Lord Auckland be impeached.

Mr. Sheridan, understanding that the paper would be produced, gave notice, that if it was similar to that which had already publicly appeared, he would make the above motion on Thursday.

On which day he moved, that the memorial presented by Lord Auckland and the Imperial ambassador to their High Mightinesses at the Hague, dated the 5th instant, together with all the memorials presented to the States General since the 22d of September last, should be laid before the house, as he intended to ground upon them a motion of a very serious nature.

Mr. Pitt said his only motive for requesting Mr. Sheridan to postpone his motion to this day, was, that the utmost precision being necessary when state papers were in question, it was not right, he thought, to depend upon memory, however accurate it might be. On enquiry, he had no objection to the production of the paper; and as to the memorials to which they referred, his majesty and ministers had intended to have laid them before parliament.

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For, as the subject had been seriously taken up, the honour of the nobleman, who had acted agreeably to his instructions, and who on many accounts deserved so well of his country, demanded a full investigation.

Mr. Sheridan was glad to find that the whole of the correspondence was to be produced.

Mr. Pitt said, he did not mean that *all* the correspondence with their High Mightinesses on the subject should be made public; but merely such memorials as had appeared in the Gazette, respecting the unhappy fate of the late king of France.

On Tuesday, April 23, the House of Commons went into a committee, when Mr. Secretary Dundas, in a speech of considerable length, took a general view of the vast importance and magnitude of our Indian possessions to this country in a commercial way, stating, that at present the shipping employed in the trade contained 81,000 tons, and 7000 mariners; that raw materials imported into the country from India were to the amount of 700,000l. our exports there 1,000,000l. the sums annually received by the Exchequer exceeding 1,000,000l. the floating capital in this country a like sum; and, he said, he might rate the private fortunes of individuals brought home at 500,000l. On the whole, he might say, with a tolerable degree of accuracy, that our connection with India added annually to the circulation of this country a sum of not less than seven millions sterling.

He then pointed out the many disadvantages which must arise from a separation of the Company and the public: the various and complicated settlements which must take place, and the considerable delays to the trade, which may tend to a consummation the most fatal. The first question to be considered was, that of the government of the territorial possessions of the Company, which the successful experience of nine years had induced him to propose a continuation of the present system.

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The causes of the weight of the government being taken from those who had the management of the commercial concerns, were already known; and it was his opinion, that were the entire government and patronage to be annexed to the crown, it might create an unconstitutional preponderance in that branch of the legislature. He argued in favour of continuing the trade in a company, exclusively chartered for the purpose, which system, qualified with such restrictions as he should shortly lay before the committee, he meant to propose for their adoption.

Mr. Dundas concluded with observing, that his specific propositions were not yet finally concluded, and when they were, he should have them printed and laid before the committee.

On Wednesday, April 24, Mr. Pitt gave notice, that to-morrow he would move for the appointment of a select committee, to take into consideration the embarrassed state of the merchants and manufacturers of this country. He hoped that their report would be as speedy as possible, the emergency of the times requiring the utmost expedition in their deliberations. He believed, that the appointment of a committee would answer better than a public investigation in the house. It was not his intention to interrupt the important business which stood for to-morrow; neither did he think that this motion could produce any debate; but he thought it a duty incumbent upon him not to lose any time in a matter of such vast magnitude as that which was so nearly annexed with the public credit of this country. "When properly investigated, he had no hesitation in saying, that the late numerous failures would be attributed solely to the sudden check given to circulation; for it appeared, that the majority had much more property than would answer the demands. He augured well of the motion now announced for the appointment of a select com-

mittee, and entertained no doubt but that credit would soon be restored to its usual vigour.

Accordingly, on the next day, he rose for the purpose of moving for such appointment, to examine into the present state of commercial credit. Mr. Pitt said, he was persuaded that every gentleman must feel the matter to be of great national importance. A select committee he thought was the best calculated to discuss, mature, and prepare for the house, a proposition upon the subject. He concluded by making a motion for the appointment of a committee of fifteen gentlemen, among whom were the Master of the Rolls, the Lord Mayor of London, Sir John Sinclair, Mr. Pultney, Mr. Hussey, Mr. S. Thornton, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, &c. which was agreed to.

The same day Mr. Sheridan rose in order to make his promised motion, which, he said, he should not deem to be of importance, if its object went merely to censure Lord Auckland, but which he did consider to be of very great importance, inasmuch as it went to bring about an explanation to the country of the true nature and real object of the war in which we were involved. In the various discussions which had taken place relative to the war, there had been an unanimous determination to support his majesty in preventing Holland from falling a prey to the power of France; on the propriety of the war; however, there had subsisted a difference of opinion: he wished now, however, to try ministers by the paper of which he complained, whether they avowed one purpose, the security of the country, and had another purpose in view which they dared not declare. Should they not disclaim the memorial of Lord Auckland, then it would be evident that they had abandoned the ground on which they had called for the concurrence and support of the house to prosecute the present war. His lord-

ship's

ship's last memorial Mr. Sheridan observed, was destitute of dignity, and by its scurrility disgraceful to the nation he represented: he had termed the persons exercising the powers of government in France, wretches and miscreants; hard words like those might have been avoided, and could have no other operation than to render such peace ignominious and disgraceful. Mr. Sheridan admitted the right of England and Holland to determine, as they did by memorials in September last, to refuse asylum or refuge to those who might commit that act which had been every where lamented and disapproved; by those memorials, however, no idea had been expressed of seizing or punishing persons guilty of any crime in France. But the memorial of Lord Auckland upon the seizure of those commissioners, was in fact a recommendation to have them assassinated; an act which might, when known at Paris expose those to destruction for the safety of whom the commissioners were delivered as hostages. This conduct of the noble lord appeared to him to be of a nature calculated to produce more horrid and detestable consequences than any act ever before committed. If we were to consider ourselves at war with France, we ought to conduct that war, whoever might rule in France, and by whatever means they might have obtained the power, in the same manner as we would conduct a war against any other country in Europe. If we were to act upon such principles as must have led to the production of the memorial of the 5th instant, we might as well act out at once boldly, offer a price for the head of every Frenchman, treat the rulers as conspirators; their armies as banditti; their navy as pirates; and hunt the natives as wolves. Was such, he asked, the intention of ministers? If it was, let them speak out; the people of England ought to know the real grounds and objects of the

war. Would it be avowed that there existed a wish to establish the ancient despotism? He was confident it would not, for he was of opinion that no minister in this country would dare to avow, that to be the object for which British blood was to be shed, and British treasure expended; neither would any minister dare avow to the country that such an expenditure of blood and treasure was for the purpose of punishing those who were guilty of crimes committed in another country, with whose internal government we had no right whatever to interfere. By stigmatizing the existing ruling powers as wretches and regicides, he saw no means by which we could treat for peace; on the contrary, it should seem that peace was not the object of the confederation against France; for, whatever the allied powers might profess, he was convinced that their object was to aggrandize themselves by a partition of France, and not to provide for that country a good and stable government. Partition might not be the object with England, but she would ultimately be the dupe of those whose views she was forwarding. He might be charged, Mr. Sheridan observed, with presumption in imputing to crowned heads concealed and false declarations, but his suspicions were justified by the acts of those personages. For a proof of the virtuous conduct of crowned heads, he begged to turn the attention of the house to their proceedings with regard to Poland; there they had committed acts of rapine, of ambition, and injustice, which ought, in common policy, to have been at least deferred for some little time, as being extremely mal-apropos, at a period when those very powers were reproaching France for acts of injustice and aggrandizement, which they themselves had far exceeded. In order more fully to pourtray the revolution in Poland, which had been overthrown by

Russia and by Prussia, Mr. Sheridan read Mr. Burke's beautiful description of that event, by which all, from the king to the peasants were bettered; yet that glorious revolution had been trampled upon, had been destroyed and murdered by ambition and despotism, without one single word of reprobation from those who had been foremost to applaud it. The Empress of Russia, in an insulting and goading memorial, had stated that she had, to indemnify herself for her interference with the government of Poland, been graciously pleased to annex for ever to the Russian empire, several districts of Poland, and all the inhabitants; she was also pleased to declare that she wished to associate them with her own happy and free subjects. Fraternity and affiliation offered by France had been treated cavalierly, but here was Imperial affiliation, for the glory, not of the country taken, but of the whole Russian empire, which was passed by without reprobation or censure. From the recent conduct of crowned heads, at a time when caution was necessary, it should seem, Mr. Sheridan observed, that their advisers were seized with madness and infatuation, in counselling such acts of tyranny and injustice: the great, generous, and pious empress, had stolen a territory with three million of inhabitants. Wishing however to separate England from co-operating with powers guilty of the deeds they had perpetrated, he was desirous, Mr. Sheridan said, of getting rid of the present war, by keeping open some channel for a separate peace; for that reason he reprobated the memorial presented by Lord Auckland; a memorial, which excluded all prospect of peace, and which, if not disavowed, was calculated to add to the horrors of war, by renewing that sanguinary and horrid spirit which had characterized the wars of more distant and less civilized ages than the present.

Urging further the policy of getting out of the war as speedily as possible, Mr. Sheridan begged to press it upon the mind of the right honourable gentleman the business that that right hon. gentleman (the Chancellor of Exchequer) had made the subject of a motion that day; the situation of public and private credit was truly alarming, and bankruptcies were beyond all calculation. While some persons were sitting up night and day to forge arms for carrying on the war, others, he observed, were equally busy in signing bankruptcies, for no less than between four and five hundred had been signed since the present Lord Chancellor had been in office. To these alarming failures he was sorry to understand that there had been a failure in the last quarter's receipt of the public revenue. Mr. Sheridan concluded a very excellent speech by moving,

"That an humble address be presented to his majesty, to express to his majesty the displeasure of this house, at a certain memorial, dated the 5th of April, 1793, presented to the States General of the United Provinces, signed by the Right Hon. Lord Auckland, his majesty's minister at the Hague, the said memorial containing a declaration of the following tenor: "Some of these detestable regicides," (meaning by this expression the commissioners of the national convention of France, delivered to Prince Cobourg by General Dumourier) "are now in such a situation that they can "be subjected to the sword of the law; the "rest are still in the midst of a people "whom they have plunged into an abyss "of evils; and for whom famine, anarchy, "and civil war, are about to prepare new "calamities. In short, every thing that "we see happen, induces us to consider as "not far distant the end of these wretches, "whose madness and atrocities have filled "with horror and indignation all those "who respect the principles of religion, "morality, and humanity.

"The undersigned, therefore, submit to "the enlightened judgment and wisdom of "your High Mightinesses, whether it would "not be proper to employ all the means "in your power to prohibit from entering "your dominions in Europe, or your colonies, all those members of the assembly "styling itself the National Convention, or "of the pretended executive council, who "were directly or indirectly concerned in "the

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"the said crime; and if they should be discovered and arrested, to deliver them up to justice, that they may serve as a lesson and example to mankind."

"To acquaint his majesty of the sense of this house, that the said minister, in making this declaration, has departed from the principles upon which this house was induced to concur in the measures necessary for the support of the war, in which the British nation is at present unfortunately engaged; and has announced an intention on his part, inconsistent with the repeated assurances given by his majesty, that he would not interfere in the internal affairs of France; and for which declaration, this house cannot be easily brought to believe, that the said minister derived any authority from his majesty's instructions.

"Humbly to beseech his majesty, that so much of the said memorial, as contains the declaration above recited, may be publicly disavowed by his majesty, as containing matter inconsistent with the wisdom and humanity which at all times have distinguished the British nation, and derogatory to the dignity of the crown of this realm, by avowing an intention to interpose in the internal affairs of France, which his majesty has, in so many declarations disclaimed, and mingling purposes of vengeance, with those objects of defence and security to ourselves and our allies, which his majesty's ministers have so often declared to be the sole object of the present war.

"To represent to his majesty, that this house has already expressed its sense of the acts spoken of in the above declaration; but that as neither this, nor any other foreign State can possess any cognizance, or jurisdiction respecting them, the only tendency of menaces against their perpetrators is, to compel this country, either unjustifiably to carry on war, for the subversion of the present government of France, or disgracefully to seek peace by an ignominious negotiation with the very government whom we have thus insulted, and stigmatized in our public acts.

"That these threats must tend to give to the hostilities with which Europe is now afflicted, a peculiar barbarism and ferocity, by provoking and reviving a system of retaliation and bloodshed, which experience of its destructive tendency, honour, humanity, and religion, have combined to banish from the practice of civilized war.

"And finally, to represent to his majesty how deeply the reputation of his majesty's councils is interested in disclaiming these unjustifiable, and we trust, unauthorized denunciations of vengeance, so destructive of all respect for the consistency, and of all confidence in the sincerity of the public acts of his ministers, and so manifestly tending at once to render the principle of the war unjust, the conduct of hostilities barbarous, and the attainment of honourable peace hopeless."

Mr. Grey seconded the motion.

P O E T R Y.

TO JESSIE,
WITH A ROSE.

JESSIE, sweet enchanting creature,
Ah! how bright thy beauties shine!
Nymph seraphic, ev'ry feature
Form'd with majesty divine.

Jessie, look upon this flower,
That a little while ago
Stood refresh'd with summer's shower,
And did in the garden blow.

See already how 'tis faded,
Though so oft it stood the breezes;
Then reflect, the hand that made it,
Can destroy it when he pleases.

Know, amidst your smiling glances,
'Tis an emblem sign of you;
For when hoary age advances,
Then you'll lose your rosy hue.

Though you're lovely to perfection,
When ordain'd to lose your breath,
Youth will yield you no protection
From the fatal shafts of death.

Whilst you see so many dying,
Ere to flower of age they're grown,
Catch the minutes as they're flying,
Think the next may be your own.

Airdrie. W. YATES, Jun.

TO WILLIAM YATES, JUN.

THOU florist brave, I thee revere,
Thy beauty great, will ever shine;
Thy words are grave, thy heart's sincere,
With gratitude to me and mine.

Thou art most worthy in my view,
Yea, dearest of all mortal men;
Encomiums more to thee are due,
Than can flow from a female pen.

O lovely rose! thou first of flowers,
Garnish'd by nature's bounteous hand,
Adorns the palace and the bowers,
By a divine and high command.

Thou charming plant, I thee adore,
Thy fragrance cheers my drooping mind;
My soul to lofty summits soars,
And leaves all sec'lar cares behind.

What, but perfection, dost thou lack?
Thy beauty will no more renew;
Resplendent lustre did thee deck,
Refulgent with a crimson hue.

O lovely rose! thou dost decay,
Thy fragrant leaves consume and die;
Such an ensample makes me say,
"Lo! this the fate of you and I."

JESSIE ———
LINES

L I N E S

ON THE DEATH OF MR. H. G. AMORY.

PHILANDER, how severe thy fate!

How few thy joys; how short their date!

Thy friendly aid to others gave,

Release from an untimely grave.*

Could not a mother's care prolong,

A life so dear, a mind so strong?

Nor art arrest the fatal stroke,

No prayer indulgent heaven invoke?

But heaven is just, and man offends,

Heaven virtue, talents, genius, lends;

Philander, thine were well assigned,

Were well improved, and well resigned.

O could this votive lay impart,

The graces of thine head and heart;

Secure were then thy right to fame,

In thee renew'd a parent's name.†

FROM THE FRENCH OF FIBRAC.

WHATE'ER its government, thy

country love,

Thy lawful monarch willingly obey,

T H E A T R I C A L I N T E L L I G E N C E.

AT the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden, was produced a new comedy, called *How to Grow Rich*. It is from the pen of Mr. Reynolds, author of *The Dramatist*, *Notoriety*, &c. &c. &c.

The Dramatis Personæ are—

M E N.

Pavé, - - - -	Mr. Lewis.
Small-Trade, - - - -	Mr. Quick.
Walford, - - - -	Mr. Pope.
Sir Thomas Roundhead, - - - -	Mr. Munden.
Sir Charles Dazzle, - - - -	Mr. Farren.
Simpkin, - - - -	Mr. Blanchard.
Latitat, - - - -	Mr. Fawcett.
Nab, - - - -	Mr. Cubit.

W O M E N.

Rosa, - - - -	Mrs. Davis.
Miss Dazzle, - - - -	Miss Chapman.
Lady Henrietta, - - - -	Mrs. Pope.

A SKETCH OF THE FABLE.

Lady Henrietta, the daughter of Lord Dorville, is left under the guardianship of Sir Thomas Roundhead, a country justice. In this situation she falls into the fashionable vices of the day, and particularly that of an excessive fondness for the pleasure of the gaming-table. Sir Charles Dazzle, and his sister Miss Dazzle, though living in the most expensive stile, having in reality no other property than a pharo bank, which Sir Charles, the better to carry on his designs against Lady Henrietta, removes to a watering-place, where her uncle Sir Thomas

And let the state thy ready homage prove,
Should few or many bear the sovereign
fway;

Convinc'd that God's paternal care
Has thought it fit to place thee there.

M. EDGEWORTH'S BENEDICTION
TO THE MASSACRED LOUIS XVI.

O True descendant of a fainted king,
To thee no terror these sad horrors
bring;

Ascend the scaffold, then, with dauntless
pace,

It leads to join in heaven thy holy race.

L I N E S

LEFT UPON THE CAP OF LIBERTY
IN THE NIGHT.

FRANCE, France, tout te menace ruine,
Bonnet sans tête, arbre sans racine.
France, well thy emblems with thy station
suit,

A headless cap, a tree without a root.

REGALIS.

resides. The bank not being over-rich, Miss Dazzle endeavours to persuade Small-Trade, a simple country banker, of the advantage that would accrue to him were he to become a partner in the pharo-bank. Allured by the hope of growing rich more speedily than by his small trade, he consents to the proposal, and appears at the bank of Sir Charles Dazzle, dressed in a rich embroidered coat. Walford, who had gone to the house of Sir Charles with a view of seeking Lady Henrietta, and demonstrating with her on the impropriety of her conduct, meets his uncle Small-Trade, who asks for the articles of partnership between himself and Sir Charles Dazzle. Walford endeavours to dissuade him from the execution of them, but without effect. In the mean time Pavé, a dangle after great men, and who had been brought down by Sir Charles for the purpose of aiding his scheme, struck with the drefs of Small-Trade, mistakes him for a man of consequence, and under this impression addresses him with a view of procuring his interest to get appointed to a comfortable situation in life. In the course of their conversation, Pavé mentions Sir Charles's intention of plucking a little country banker, by admitting him a partner. Alarmed at this, Small-Trade destroys the intended articles, and makes his escape from the house with much precipitation. Lady Henrietta, however, falls into the trap laid for

* In allusion to his active exertions as a member of the Humane Society.

† He was the son of the late eminent divine, Dr. Amory, author of many pious and well received discourses.

for her by Sir Charles, and having lost to him fifteen hundred pounds, which she is unable to pay, is soon convinced by his behaviour of the extreme folly and imprudence of placing herself in the power of Sir Charles, but from whom she is rescued by Pavé. Lady Henrietta too soon experiences Dazzle's repentment, as he immediately arrests her for the debt. Without a friend, and on the point of being driven by Nab, a fashionable bailiff, in his carriage to a spunging-house, she is relieved from this embarrassing situation by Young Walford, who had also reconciled her to her uncle and guardian, Sir Thomas Roundhead. The old gentleman having quarrelled with his god-daughter Rosa, whom he had adopted, and to whom he had intended to leave his fortune, determines to marry his niece to the member of parliament for the borough in which he resided, which was then vacant, and for which Sir Charles Dazzle was the only candidate: a contract is drawn up for the purpose, but Pavé appearing with Rosa, the daughter of Mediam, the minister of the parish, whom he had mistaken for the daughter of the Minister, gives out that he is the son of the Minister. Lady Henrietta perceiving the mistake, seizes the favourable opportunity of persuading Sir Thomas to be reconciled to his god-daughter, and to alter the contract from Sir Charles and herself to Pavé and Rosa; to this he consents, but on finding out the error, has Rosa confined. Means, however, for her escape are planned by Pavé, who in the execution of them meets with Latitat, who had concealed himself in the room for the purpose of overhearing the conversation of Sir Thomas and Small-Trade with respect to the election. Small-Trade, an enemy to Sir Charles Dazzle for his former conduct, and having considerable interest in the borough, readily consents, at the instance of Latitat, the returning officer, to support Pavé, whom he passes off as the son of Alderman Double. The plan succeeds, and Pavé is elected; on which all parties are reconciled, and Walford and Lady Henrietta are made happy by a promise from Old Small-Trade of half his fortune.

This comedy, it may be truly said, has a rich vein of pleasantry; it is happily adapted to hold out folly to ridicule, and vice to detestation.

The dialogue is throughout lively; the remarks and observations on "the manners living as they rise," are pointed; the ridicule forcible, and the occasional sentiments which are throughout interperfed, were in many instances expreffed with much elegance.

The prologue is one of the dullest we ever remember to have heard; and, what at present should be carefully avoided, full of political allusions. The epilogue is lively, and well delivered by Mr. Lewis.

MARRIED.

The Earl of Ancram, to Lady Henrietta Hobart.

Arthur Disney, Esq. to Miss Lane, of Castle Lake, in the county of Tipperary.

Jacob Hertel, Esq. to Miss Molling.

Maximilian Western, Esq. of Harper-street, to Miss Loder, of Hinton, Bucks.

Capt. Sproule, of the royal regiment of artillery, to Miss Louisa Halliday, of Westcomb Park, Kent.

Samuel Humphreys, Esq. of Pendwaring, in Glamorganthire, to Mrs. Ball.

The Rev. Richard Woodward, to Miss Bathre, of the Crescent, Bath.

Sir William Young, bart. to Miss Talbot.

John Adolphus, Esq. of Cecil-street, Strand, to Miss Leicester, of White Place, Berks.

Capel Hanbury, Esq. to Miss Bell, of Stamford Hill.

Sir Wm. Wake, bart. to Miss Gambier. O. Legrew, jun. Esq. to Miss Margaret Playford.

Thomas Swinnerton, Esq. of Batterton, in the county of Stafford, to Miss Melbourne.

H. B. Portman, Esq. to the Hon. Miss Lucy Portman.

Lord Bruce, to the Hon. Miss Hill, daughter of Lady Berwick.

The Rev. J. P. Bannerman, to Miss Turing, of Sloane-street.

John Macconnel, Esq. of Isle Ronde, in the West Indies, to Miss Adair.

G. S. Penfold, Esq. of Morton College, Oxford, to Miss Sarah Fleming, of Maidenhead.

John Macpald, Esq. of Edinburgh, to Miss Ann Stewart, of Ardheal.

DIED.

Mr. Henry Grove Amory, youngest son of the late Dr. Amory, an eminent dissenting minister, of London, and author of several valuable discourses. The death of this truly amiable and excellent person will be long regretted by all who had the happiness of his acquaintance. A good education, and excellent understanding, furnished him with a fund of knowledge, which would have graced the first ranks of society. But what renders his memory particularly dear are, his unfulfilled morals, and inflexible integrity. Though remarked for a strict adherence to religious duties, his temper was what it ought to be, mel- lowed, and not soured by them; instead of the gloom and moroseness of a bigot, he exhibited the cheerfulness of a Christian. Happy had it been for the sons of poverty, if his pecuniary circumstances had been proportioned to his expanded and benevolent heart. But his desires to do good were straightened by the frequent returns of epileptic fits, which at length deprived him of an employment he had long filled with honour, and of its attendant emoluments.

Yet

Yet the little he could spare was employed for the most humane purposes, and this was often more than rigid prudence would have allowed in colder bosoms. With returning health he wished to become again usefully employed, and trusted to his well-known integrity and diligence. But among strangers, it is not to be wondered if these pleas were overlooked, as they were known only by report. The ill success of several canvasses crossed, but could not faze a mind only distressed at receiving from relatives the assistance he wished to impart to others. His last attempt was succeeded by an unusually violent paroxysm of his distemper, from which he never recovered. May those who read this, be as well prepared to follow him.

Mr. Forster Powell, the celebrated pedestrian.

Robert Wentworth, Esq. an alderman of Salisbury.

The Lady of rear admiral Fitzherbert.

Aged 65, Andrew Ross, Esq. of Knight's Hill, Herefordshire.

The Lady of Richard Cox, Esq. of George-street, Hanover-square.

Lady Charlotte Hamilton, only daughter of the Earl of Haddington.

Miss Champney, eldest daughter of Sir Thomas Champney.

Ch. Hemington, Esq. of Canterbury Place.

Mrs. Hyde, of Blackheath.

Robert Mecklem, Esq. mayor of Reading.

Mrs. Dodson, of Harper-street, Red Lion-square.

George Cummine, Esq. late captain of the 53d regiment.

David Runfal, Esq. of Laurence-street, Chelsea.

The Rev. William Williams, master of the grammar-school, Blackheath.

Samuel Hoffman, Esq. of Shadwell.

John Motteux, Esq. merchant, of London.

Mrs. Ann Green, wife of Capt. Green, of the marines.

At Bath, Sir Wm. Caldwell, bart.

At Dumfries, Sir David Wardley, bart.

Aged 69, the Rev. J. Ritchel, rector of Thornhill, Yorkshire.

Francis Law, Esq. formerly chief of Dacca.

Richard Tickel, Esq. father of Richard Tickel, Esq. of the Stamp Office.

John Greig, Esq. of Canton, in China, son of the late admiral Greig.

John Belpaz, Esq. collector of the excise at Lancaster.

Mrs. Crawford, of King's Langley, Herts.

The Rev. H. Barnard, D. D.

PRICES OF STOCKS.

	April 22.	April 29.	May 6.	May 13.
Bank Stock - - -	117 $\frac{7}{8}$	169 $\frac{1}{2}$	144 $\frac{1}{2}$	—
3 per Cent. Consolidated	77 $\frac{1}{2}$	78	76 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{1}{2}$
4 per Cent. Consolidated	90 $\frac{1}{2}$	90 $\frac{1}{2}$	89 $\frac{1}{2}$	88 $\frac{1}{2}$
5 per Cent. Navy - -	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	107 $\frac{1}{2}$
Long Annuities - - -	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	22 3-16	—	21 $\frac{1}{2}$
Short Annuities - - -	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 1-16	10 1-16	—
India Stock - - -	215	—	213 $\frac{1}{2}$	—
India Bonds - - -	2 dif.	4 dif.	—	5 dif.
South Sea Stock - - -	—	—	—	—
New Navy - - -	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ dif.	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ dif.	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ dif.	10 dif.
Exchequer Bills - - -	6 dif.	—	—	—
Scrip - - -	79 $\frac{7}{8}$	—	—	—

PRICES OF CORN AT THE CORN-MARKET.

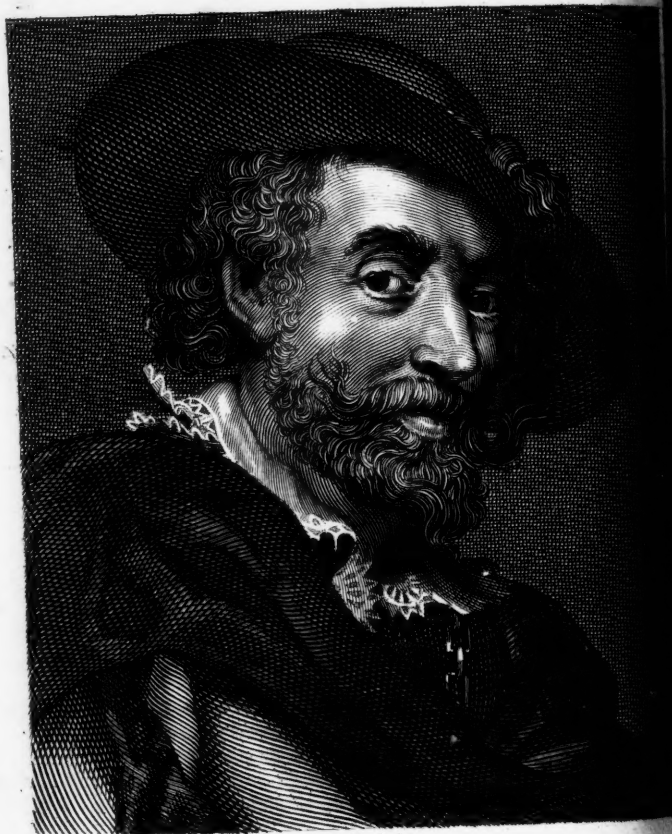
	April 26.	April 29.	May 17.	May 20.
Wheat - - -	46s. to 53s.	48s. to 54s.	36s. to 48s.	38s. to 49s.
Barley - - -	27s. — 32s.	30s. — 33s.	28s. — 32s.	26s. — 32s.
Rye - - -	28s. — 31s.	30s. — 32s.	30s. — 32s.	28s. — 32s.
Oats - - -	16s. — 24s.	16s. — 24s.	16s. — 24s.	16s. — 24s.
Pale Malt - - -	39s. — 42s.	40s. — 42s.	37s. — 41s.	38s. — 41s.
Amber ditto - - -	39s. — 43s.	40s. — 42s.	39s. — 41s.	39s. — 41s.
Peas - - -	36s. — 42s.	38s. — 42s.	38s. — 42s.	38s. — 42s.
Beans - - -	32s. — 36s.	32s. — 36s.	33s. — 37s.	35s. — 39s.
Tares - - -	28s. — 34s.	30s. — 36s.	30s. — 36s.	30s. — 33s.
Fine Flour - - -	42s. — 00s.	41s. — 42s.	39s. — 40s.	39s. — 40s.
Second ditto - - -	39s. — 00s.	38s. — 39s.	36s. — 37s.	36s. — 37s.
Third ditto - - -	30s. — 33s.	28s. — 36s.	27s. — 33s.	26s. — 30s.

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Literary Magazine?



REUBENS.

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